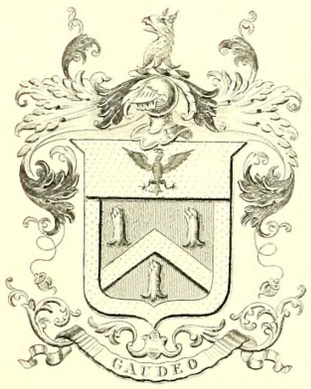


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THE

GEOGRAPHICAL

AND

HISTORICAL

DICTIONARY

OF

AMERICA AND THE WEST INDIES.

CONTAINING

AN ENTIRE TRANSLATION OF THE SPANISH WORK

OF

COLONEL DON ANTONIO DE ALCEDO,

CAPTAIN OF THE ROYAL SPANISH GUARDS, AND MEMBER OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF HISTORY:

WITH

Large Additions and Compilations

FROM MODERN VOYAGES AND TRAVELS,

AND FROM

ORIGINAL AND AUTHENTIC INFORMATION.

BY

G. A. THOMPSON, ESQ.

IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOL. V.

——— *Magna modis multis miranda videtur*
Gentibus humanis regio, visendaque fertur,
Rebus opima bonis. LUCRETIUS, *lib. I. line 727.*

London:

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1815.

TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

NICHOLAS VANSITTART,

CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER, &c. &c.

SIR,

It was your advice and encouragement that first induced me to attempt the Translation of Alcedo's Dictionary. The work was undertaken six years ago, when I was only twenty-three years old, and has ever since been the chief employment of those hours which the necessary attendance of my office has left at my disposal.

In seeking a name to give credit to my work, I am naturally led to solicit yours, not merely by the impulse of gratitude and esteem, but by the dictates of prudence, since there is no name that is better calculated than yours to stamp on it the impression of authority, and give it currency.

With you, Sir, whose duty it has been to provide for the pecuniary exigencies of your country in times that have called for an expenditure so unprecedented and astonishing, the resources she has derived from the extensive regions of the

Western World must be too familiar not to be duly appreciated. To display those resources in their due magnitude and importance to your countrymen at large is amongst the objects of my labours: I trust, therefore, that yourself and the public in general will have the goodness to receive them, if not with commendation, at least without much severity of censure.

The Egyptians wisely suspended their judgment of distinguished men till death had sealed their characters. Were I here to take the liberty of expressing my sense of your worth, my contemporaries would suspect me of flattery, whilst posterity would, with infinitely more justice, blame me for underrating it; nor would the attempt be less presumptuous in me than displeasing to yourself. I hope, however, I may be permitted without offence to yourself or to any one, to acknowledge my great obligations to you, and to assure you of the high respect, esteem, and gratitude with which

I have the honor to be,

SIR,

Your most devoted

and faithful

humble servant,

G. A. THOMPSON.

THE

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL

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OF

AMERICA AND THE WEST INDIES.

UBAQUE, a head settlement of the district of the *corregimiento* of this name, in the new kingdom of Granada; it was, during the Paganism of the Indians, one of the most powerful principalities belonging to the *caciques:* at present it contains 200 inhabitants and as many Indians. In its church is venerated with particular devotion an image of our Lady painted on canvass, and which after undergoing much injury from time, appeared all at once miraculously renovated. By a rugged spot, called De Zaname, close to the valley in which this settlement stands, there is a stone with the impression of a human foot, which, by the tradition of the Indians, is on various authority that of the apostle St. Bartholomew. It is seven leagues from Santa Fé.

UBARANA, Ensennada de, a bay on the coast of the province and *captainship* of Seara, in the kingdom of Brazil: it is between the rivers Lagaribe and Riobara.

Ubarana, a point of land of this name, which is one of those that form the afore-mentioned bay.

UBATE, a head settlement of the district of the *corregimiento* of that name, in the new kingdom of Granada. Its climate is cold, but not to excess, and produces in abundance the fruits peculiar to such a temperature; especially wheat, potatoes, maize, apples and barley. In the church is worshipped a miraculous image of Christ on the cross, to the sanctuary of which the people are impelled by devotion to come from the other provinces. It contains more than 10,000 inhabitants, and was one of the first settlements of the kingdom which was converted by the missionaries of the order of St. Francis, of whom it was for many years a doctrinal curacy. It is 29 miles *n. n. w.* of Santa Fé.

UBATUBA, a town of the province and *captainship* of San Vicente in Brazil; situated on the coast on a neck of land opposite the Isle of Puercos.

Ubatuba, a lake of this name, in the same province and kingdom, by the coast, on the shores of which the Portuguese have constructed a fort.

UBAY, a large and copious river of Peru. It takes its source from a lake which is formed by the river Parapiti, or Apere, in the country and territory of Isoso, and runs to the *n.* always inclining to the *n. n. w.* more than 70 leagues. It crosses the country of the Chiquitos Indians and the province of Los Moxos in the kingdom of Quito, in which it enters much encreased by the waters it has received from that of Itenes, opposite the entrenchment of Santa Rosa. This river is also called Magdalena San Miguel, and formerly Los Chiquitos. Its mouth is in lat. 11° 57′ *s.*

UBAZA, a large settlement, in the time of the Indians, of the province and *corregimiento* of Velez in the new kingdom of Granada; it was conquered by Gonzalo Ximenez Quesada in 1537, but is at present entirely ruined.

UBAZU, or Canqua, a river of the province and *captainship* of San Vicente in Brazil, which enters the sea opposite the island San Sebastian.

UBEITA. See Obeita.

UBERO, Point, on the coast of the province and government of Venezuela and new kingdom of Granada, opposite the island of Curaçoa, close to the point of Hicacos.

UBIA, a river of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos in the new kingdom of Granda. It is formed by the junction of several streams, and enters the Guayavero.

UBINAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Moguehua in Peru; situate on the opposite side of the *cordillera*, lying to the *e.* of the province, the same having on its skirts a great volcano, which is constantly vomiting fire, and also seen frequently in the month of October to emit black and boiling water. To the district of the settlement belongs a church, well furnished and of no mean erection, in a spot called Ichuña, where there is a mill for grinding silver metals extracted from a mine in that quarter, and although the quantity procured be at present trifling, it was not always so, if we may judge from the sumptuous ornaments still belonging to the temple just mentioned.

UBOCA, a river of the province and government of La Guayana, which enters the Apure.

UBZAQUEN, or Usaquen, an ancient city, at the present day almost in a state of ruins, in the province of the Indian nation of the Mozcas, of the new kingdom of Granada. It was conquered and subjected by the arms of Gonzalo Ximinez de Quesada in 1537. At present it forms a settlement of the *corregimiento* of the Indians of Boza, is of a cold temperature, abounding and fertile in the productions of a similar climate. It has a vice-parish in a neighbouring hamlet, called La Calera. Its population is composed of 100 housekeepers, and some more Indians. [It lies about 11 miles *n. e.* from Santa Fé.]

[UCAH, Port, on the *n. w.* coast of N. America, is situate on Washington's Island, *s.* of Port Geyer, and *n.* of Port Sturgis. At its mouth are Needham's Isles. The middle of the entrance of this bay is in lat. 52° 25′ *n.*]

UCAREO, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España. It contains 480 families of Indians, including those dwelling in the wards of its district, and in a convent of the religious of S. Augustin. It is 12 leagues to the *n. w.* of its capital.

UCAYALE, a very abundant and navigable river, and one of the largest of those which enter the Marañon, or Amazonas, and, according to some, even wider than this at its mouth. It has its rise in a great lake, called Chinchaycochá, in the mountains of the province and *corregimiento* of Tarma in Peru, and only about 12 miles from the city of Tarma. It runs, under different names, first to *s.* then turns its course to *e.* and, after many windings, inclines to the *n.*, forming many islands and lakes, in which are multitudes of alligators and tortoises. Amongst the numerous rivers which join it in its course, are the Paucartambo, Manua, Sarayacu, Cassavatay and Tapissi. According to modern observations it runs more than 200 leagues: in the woods on its borders dwell the nations of the Piros, Cunivos and Cocamas Indians, who had, for the most part, been reduced by the labours of the Jesuit missionaries of the province of Quito, but suddenly rebelled, and put to death the father Enrique Ricter, with a clergyman called Vazquez, and retired to the mountains; and although it has been since attempted to bring them into a civilised state of life, first in the year 1695, and again in 1764, the effort was vain. The river Ucayale enters, as before observed, into the Marañon, or Amazonas, by the *s.* side, [in lat. 4° 25′ *s.*]

UCCHIUMARCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Lucanas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of Saiza.

UCCHUBAMBA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Xauja, in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Apata.

Ucchubamba, another, in the province and *corregimiento* of Andahuailas, in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chincheros.

UCCHUILLUAILLAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Angaraes, in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Lircay.

UCCHUSTAMBO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Lucanas, in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Saiza.

UCHAN, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chichas and Tarija, in the same kingdom, and of the division and district of Lucanas.

UCHAYUCAPA, a settlement of the province and government of Canta in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pari.

[UCHE, an Indian town of N. America, situate on the Chata Uche river. It is situated, according to Bartram, on a vast plain, and is the largest, most compact, and best situated Indian town he ever saw. The habitations are large, and neatly built; the walls of the houses are constructed of a wooden frame, then lathed and plastered inside and out with a reddish well-tempered clay or mortar, which gives them the appearance of red brick walls; and the roofs are neatly covered with cypress bark, or shingles. The town appears populous and thriving, full of youth and young children; and is supposed to contain about 1500 inhabitants. They are able to muster 500 gun-men or warriors. Their national language is radically different from the Creek or Muscogulge tongue, and is called the Savanna or Savanuca tongue. It is said to be the same as, or a dialect of the Shawanese. Although in confederacy with the Creeks, they do not mix with them; and are of importance enough to excite the jealousy of the whole Muscogulge confederacy, and are usually at variance, yet are wise enough to unite against a common enemy to support the interest of the general Creek confederacy.]

UCHIRE, a river of the province and government of Cumaná, which enters the sea.

UCHOS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxamarquilla in Peru, having a very good port in the river Marañon, whereby the commerce is facilitated between this province and that of Conchucos.

UCHUMARCA, a settlement of the same province and kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Balzas, in the province of Chachapoyas.

UCHUPIAMORIAS, San Joseph de, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Apolabamba in Peru, one of the missions that were held there by the religious of St. Francis. It lies between the *cordillera* of the Andes of Cuchoa and the river Beni, and has the name of the Indian nation from whom it is formed.

UCITA, a small river of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia, which rises *w.* of Verrama, runs parallel to the same, and enters the Ventuavi.

UCO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Conchucos in Peru, to the curacy of which belongs the valley of Araucay, in the *s. w.* part of the Marañon, where there are three estates, all belonging to the province of Huamalies. [This settlement is situate nearly 60 miles *n.* of what Fritz in 1707 called the source of the Marañon.]

UCUBAMBA, or Ucupampa, which signifies in the Quechuan language, a deep *llanura*. It is here the name of a river, which rises in the province and *corregimiento* of Caxamarquilla, of the kingdom of Peru, passes through the province of Chachapoyas, and, united with the Taulia, enters the Marañon, between two lofty mountains called Remtema, opposite the settlement of Tomependa. It has also the name of Chachapoyas, and near its mouth that of Huabua, in lat. 5° 30′ *s.*

UCUCHACAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Condesuyos de Arequipa in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Choco.

UCUNTAYA, a mountain of the province and *corregimento* of Carabaya in Peru, celebrated for a rich silver-mine, from which there was extracted in the year 1713, a solid mass of that metal, which produced many thousands of dollars.

[UGALACHIMIUTI, a Russian settlement on the *n. w.* coast of America. For a further description of which, see Vol. iii. p. 222. of this work.]

UGUNUCU, a settlement of the province and government of Popayán, in the new kingdom of Granada.

UJIBO. See Ojiba.

[ULIETEA, one of the Society Islands in the S. Pacific Ocean, is about seven or eight leagues from the island of Huaheine, at *s. w.* by *w.* There are nine uninhabited islands *w.* of it. The *s.* end lies in lat. 16° 55′ *s.* and long. 151° 20′ *w.*]

ULLAGAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Paria in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Coroma in the province of Porco.

ULLUN, a settlement of the kingdom of Chile; situate *e.* of the volcano of Simari, or Choapa.

ULSTER, a county of the province and colony of New York, in the United States of America. [It contains all that part of the state of New York, bounded *e.* by the middle of Hudson's River, *s.* by the county of Orange, *w.* by the state of Pennsylvania and the *w.* branch of Delaware River, and *n.* by the county of Albany. In 1790, it contained 29,397 inhabitants, including 2,996 slaves. In 1796, there were 4,429 of the inhabitants qualified to be electors. It is divided

into 16 townships. Chief town, Kingston. A part of this county and that of Otsego, were erected into a separate county, January, 1797.]

ULUA, San Juan de, an island of the N. Sea, on the coast of Nueva España, opposite Vera Cruz, and so close as to form a road which serves for a port to vessels which are accustomed to make themselves fast to some large blocks of brass which are opportunely placed here for that purpose. It has for its defence and security a large castle, furnished with more than 100 cannon; and beyond this is another handsome battery, which flanks and defends the two channels to the right and left, and which lie to the *n.* and to the *s. e.* In 1682, this island was taken by some pirates. It was discovered in 1518, by Don Juan de Grijalva.

Ulua, a river of the province and government of Honduras. It is large and abundant, navigable for vessels of 200 tons, and on its shores are some small settlements of pacific Indians. It enters the sea in the Gulf of Honduras.

ULU-MAYU, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Tarma in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Carhuamaya, in which there is a fort, with a troop, to restrain the incursions of the infidel Chunchos Indians, who border the province on that side.

[ULYSSES, one of the military townships in Onondago County, New York; situate at the *s.* end of Cayuga Lake, having Hector on the *w.* and Dryden on the *e.* which last township is included within the jurisdiction of Ulysses, which was incorporated in 1794. In 1796, 38 of the inhabitants were electors.]

UMACHIRI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Lampa in Peru.

UMACHUCO, San Roque de, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Condesuyos de Arequipa, in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Casarani.

UMAGATA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Arica, in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Copta.

UMAGUA, or Omagua San Joaquin de, a settlement of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito.

UMAMARCA, a large lake of the province and *corregimiento* of Omasuyos in Peru, divided from that of Titicaca by the peninsula of Copacavana, leaving only a small strait.

UMANATA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Larecaxa, in the same kingdom as the former lake; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Italaque.

UMAUANE, a settlement of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia; situate in the country and territory of the Quiriquiripas Indians.

UMAYA, a large and abundant river of the province of Culiacan and kingdom of Nueva Vizcaya in N. America, which rises in the mountains of the *sierra* of Zopia, and disembogues itself into the S. Sea, at the port of Navitoos. It abounds more in fish than any river in the kingdom, particularly in *robalos* (a kind of trout), of which the fisheries are very considerable. On its shores near the sea, the salt is accustomed to accumulate in such large heaps, as not to be affected or washed away by the violent showers. Further up its banks are various settlements of Mexican Indians, reduced to the faith by the religious of St. Francis.

[UMBAGOG, a large lake of New Hampshire, next in size to Lake Winipiseogee. It lies in Grafton County, and a small part of it in the district of Maine.]

UMBRA, a small river of the province and *corregimiento* of Canta in Peru, which rises from the lake Purun, runs *e.* and enters the Pari.

UMMEU, or Urameo, according to others, a settlement of the province and country of the Amazonas, or part of Guayana, belonging to the Portuguese; situate at the source of the river Tuhere.

UMURANAS, a barbarous nation of Indians descended from the ancient Mainas, who live in woods between the river Chambira to the *e.* the Pastaza to the *w.* and the Marañon to the *s.* Many of them dwell at the source of the rivers Nucuray and Orito, or Lorito-yacu. They wander about through the woods, and maintain themselves by the chase.

UNA, a settlement of the province and *captainship* of San Vicente in Brazil, on the coast between the bay of this name and the island of San Sebastian.

[UNADILLA, a river of the state of New York, called also Tianaderba, runs *s.* and joining the main branch, forms Chenengo River.]

[Unadilla, a township of New York, Otsego County, on the *n.* side of the main branch of Chenengo River. It is about 110 miles *s. w.* of Albany; and in 1796, 502 of its inhabitants were electors. In the same year the townships of Suffrage, Otsego, and Burternuts, were taken from this township, and incorporated.]

[UNAKA, Mountain. See TENNESSEE.]

UNAMARCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Andahuailas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pampachiri.

[UNAMI, a tribe of the Delaware Indians, considered to be the head of that nation.]

UNARE, a settlement of the province of Barcelona and government of Cumaná, in the new kingdom of Granada, one of the missions or *reduccions* of Indians made by the observers of S. Francisco de Piritú.

UNARE, another, in the same province and kingdom; situate in the *serrania*, and being a *reduccion* of the missions of the Arragonese Capuchins.

UNARE, a large and abundant river of the same province and kingdom, celebrated for the excellent *cacao* gathered in the estates on its banks. Some call it also Harinas: it rises in the mountains to the *e.* of Upar, runs *n. n. e.* in a serpentine course, and collecting the waters of the Huere, disembogues itself into the sea near its capital. On its banks are various settlements, consisting of *reduccions* of the religious missionaries of Piritú. This river would be navigable for bilanders and packet boats, were it not for the bar at its entrance, which is in lat. 10° 4′ *n.*

[According to Depons, the Unare divides the governments of Caracas and Cumana. It is navigable as far as the village of S. Antonio de Clarinas, six leagues from the sea. Its course is about 40 leagues from *n.* to *s.*]

UNARE, a small river of the same province and kingdom, which runs *n.* and enters the sea in the coast of Paria.

UNARE, a small lake in the same province; situate on the sea-shore with the which it communicates, and on the side of the river of its name.

UNAVI, a small river of the same province and government as the former, which rises near that of Arebato, runs correspondently with it, and then unites itself with it.

UNCAHUASI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Castro Virreyna in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Julcamarca, in the province of Angaraes.

UNCUICIA, a lake of the province of Quito and kingdom of Granada, to the *s.* of the settlement called Nombre de Jesus, and distant a little more than half a mile from the same. It has a short and narrow gut through which it runs into the Napo, and is full of islands, forming a labyrinth of channels. In the same islands dwell some barbarian Indians of the Yetes nation, in lat. 1° 27′ 30″ *s.*

UNDAMEO, SANTIAGO DE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacan; situate in a high, stony, and desert plain, but on the *n.* side of which runs a crystal stream, with which the Indians irrigate some of their sowed land. Its population consists of 20 families of these, and six of Spaniards and *Mustees*. In its district are various estates, in which dwell 14 other families of Spaniards, 11 of *Mustees*, and 20 of Indians. It has a convent of the religious of St. Augustin.

UNDAVI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Carangas in Peru, and of the archbishopric of Charcas; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chuquicota.

UNE, a settlement of the *corregimiento* of Ubaque in the new kingdom of Granada. It is of a good temperature, and its situation is level and agreeable; it yields in abundance the productions of a cold climate, and contains more than 100 housekeepers, and as many Indians. Eight leagues *s. w.* of Santa Fé.

UNGUI-YACU, a river of the province and *corregimiento* of Luya and Chillaos in Peru, which rises in the *sierra*, runs *w.* and enters the Cahuapana.

UNGUIGIA, a river of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito. It runs from whence the Coya enters the Yebineto, and changes its name to enter the Putumayo.

UNINI, a river of the province and country of the Amazonas, in the territory possessed by the Portuguese. It runs *e.* between the rivers Negro and Marañon, and enters the former.

UNITED STATES. An independent republic, formed by the union of the 13 English colonies of New Hampshire, Massachussetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, the three counties of Delaware, Pensylvania, Maryland, Virginia, the two Carolinas, and Georgia, separated from the dominion of the court of England, after a bloody war, which took place in 1767, and which arose from an act of parliament, imposing new duties upon glass, lead, colours, letter paper, and tea; the which act the said Estates professed themselves inimical to: accordingly, after five years altercation, England agreed to revoke part of the act, judging that to comply fully with the desire of the United States, was inconsistent with its dignity. It accordingly, in 1773, commanded the duties to

be taken off from tea; but the American colonists resolving not to submit to what they considered as a breach of their privileges, denied admittance to any tea that was brought from Europe, notwithstanding that this was an article amongst them in the greatest request and most common use. The example was set by the city of Boston, the capital of New England, which declared as enemies to their country all those who should sell this article, bestowing great thanks and eulogiums upon many merchants who refused to trade in it, and to others who disavowed the consignments of it actually made from their correspondents in England. The inhabitants publicly burnt what they had in their houses for private use, as likewise a quantity that was lying on board three ships lately arrived from London. The parliament taking offence at this resolution, declared the port of Boston to be in a state of blockade; and its commerce, whether of an active or passive nature, to be prohibited from the year 1774. This, instead of calming the spirit of the Bostonians, irritated them still more; they called it an inhuman, barbarous, and bloody act, and excited the whole of their citizens to defend their liberty against the tyranny of England. To such a pitch did the enthusiasm rise that nothing but exhortations were heard in the temples or the streets, and a placard was printed of the following pithy and energetic tenor. "The severity of the British parliament against Boston ought to cause all the provinces of America to tremble; since there now remains for them no choice between prisons, fire, and violent death, or the yoke of a mean and servile obedience. The epoch of a revolution has taken place; which, in its vast importance, will, either by a happy or disgraceful termination, render us either a subject of infamy or admiration to posterity. The solution of the grand problem now before us, is simply this: the choice between liberty or slavery; on this choice depends the future happiness or misery of three millions of men, and of their posterity. Rise then, Americans; never was the region that you inhabit overcast with clouds like these: ye are branded with the name of rebels, because ye have dared not to be slaves. Justify your pretensions by your valour, or seal the loss by your blood. Now is it no time to wail, when the hand of your oppressor is already forging your chains: silence were now a fault, and peace itself were infamy. The support of the Republic's rights is the supreme law; and he who shall deny to lend his utmost assistance in warding off the dangers which are thus thronging around the shrine of American independence, let him be ranked amongst the vilest of her slaves."

This impressive declamation, which was published in all the provinces, caused the inhabitants to meet together, and to form a congress in Philadelphia, in September 1774. England, in the mean time, no less agitated by the debates and opinions of its parliament, after arguing, in many ways, upon the means best adapted to quiet the colonies, at last made choice of measures of force; and, accordingly, sent General Gage with some troops; who having forwarded a detachment from Boston on the 18th April 1775, for the purpose of destroying and burning the stores of arms and ammunition, which the Americans had collected together in Concord, was completely routed by the latter; who, however, lost their commander Warren, to whom they afterwards paid singular honours as having been the first victim who died in the cause of their liberty. This calamity was followed by many others of an unorganized war; until that Congress nominated George Washington, as their general, a native of Virginia, a man already renowned for his valour and singular abilities, exhibited on various occasions. Delighted at his election, he marched for Massachussetts, and obliged the royalists to shut themselves up in Boston, where, being persecuted by their enemies, and oppressed by hunger, by miseries, and by sickness, they were obliged to embark to the number of 6,000, finding an asylum in Nova Scotia and Florida: some however remained in England. Carleton dislodged from Canada the commissaries, who had gone to use persuasions with the city of Quebec. Clinton and Parker were driven back upon the coasts, as was also general Gage, who was supported by Howe, and both backed by the brother of the latter, who had under his command a fine squadron: but the incomparable Washington, unwilling to venture his important objects, and the fate of his country on the event of a battle, contented himself with harassing the English troops, who, in 1777, found themselves engaged with the Americans, and had made themselves masters of Philadelphia. But, a short time after, an army of six thousand veterans were found to submit and render up their arms at Saratoga to some labourers and rustics, without any military experience, commanded by the fortunate Gates: but these different events subjected the colonies,

in 1779 to the expence of £.188,670,525 (Alçedo should have said dollars, though even then the amount would be excessive by about 50,000,000 of dollars); at the same time all communication with Europe was prevented by the English squadron; but, obstinate in their resolutions, the Americans exclaimed, "The English name makes us odious to the whole world: let us solemnly abjure it. All men are our brothers, and we are the friends of all nations. Let then their ships enter our ports without fear of being insulted."

Many of different nations then flocked to America, and, amongst the rest, numbers of French; but the greater part were arrested in their passage by Admiral Howe. At last, a treaty of alliance was formed between America and France in 1778, and this power acknowledged the Americans to be independent of England; upon which the latter declared war both against the French and the Spaniards; at last, however, finding that the expectation and hopes of reducing the colonies diminished daily, she came to the resolution of sending commissioners, who proposed many matters of conciliation, but all short of an acknowledgment of independence. These propositions were treated with contempt, until that England was, at last, under the necessity of acknowledging and declaring America to be an independent country in the peace of Paris of 1783; and this example was followed by all the powers of Europe, who acknowledged the title of the United States of America; the which, being composed of the thirteen provinces aforesaid, we treat of more fully under their corresponding articles.

[INDEX TO ADDITIONAL INFORMATION CONTAINED UNDER ARTICLE UNITED STATES.

Boundaries.—Grand divisions and statistical particulars of each state.—Lakes and rivers.—Face of the country.—Mountains.—Soil and vegetable productions.—Natural history.—Population and territory.—Government and constitution.—Agriculture and manufactures.—Finance.—Trade.—Military strength.—Religion.—History.—Analysis of the Berlin and Milan decrees, and of the American seamen; Non-importation and embargo laws.—Notices of the campaign in 1812 *and* 1813.*—Table of post offices, &c.—Post office regulations.—Tables of coins, exchange, &c.*

Boundaries.—The actual extent of territory in these States is very difficult to be estimated. In 1795 their boundaries were on the *n. e.* British America, or the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada and New Brunswick; on the *s. e.* the Atlantic Ocean; on the *s.* the Floridas; *e.* and *w.* —and on the *w.* the river Mississippi.

Such are, with the increased extent to the *w.* occasioned by the acquisition of Louisiana, their boundaries at the present day. Their length, in 1795, might be thus averaged at 1250, and their breadth at 1040 miles, and they laid between lat. 30° and 49° *n.*; long. 8° *e.* and 24° *w.* from Philadelphia, and long. 64° and 96° *w.* from London.

Their acquisitions which, since that period, have been merely to the *w.* affect, in consequence, their extent only in length, though, as correctly speaking, in breadth, the direction being longitudinal. The exact surface thus added it is almost impossible to calculate, since the boundaries of Louisiana are constantly shifting. In 1788 the number of square acres, included in these States, amounted to 283,800,000, of which about one million and a quarter were cultivated, and in 1808 to 600,000,000, of which nearly two millions and an half were cultivated.

In the treaty of peace, concluded in 1783, their limits were more particularly defined in the words following: "And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz. From the *n. w.* angle of Nova Scotia, viz. that angle which is formed by a line drawn due *n.* from the source of St. Croix River to the Highlands, along the said Highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to lat. 45° *n.*; from thence by a line due *w.* on said lat. until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraqui; thence along the middle of the said river into Lake Ontario; through the middle of said lake, until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of the said communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of the said lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron; thence through the middle of the said lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior, *n.* of the Isles Royal and Phillipeaux, to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of the said Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the said Lake of the Woods;]

[thence through the said lake to the most *n. w.* point thereof, and from thence, on a due *w.* course, to the river Mississippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of the said River Mississippi, until it shall intersect the northernmost part of *n.* lat. 31°.

"South, by a line to be drawn due *e.* from the determination of the line last-mentioned, in lat. 31° *n.* of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachichola, or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River; thence straight to the head of St. Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's River to the Atlantic Ocean.

"East, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth, in the Bay of Fundy, to its source, and from its source directly *n.* to the aforesaid Highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due *e.* from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part, and East Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting such islands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia."

The territory of the United States, according to Mr. Hutchins, contained in 1790, by computation, a million of square miles, in which are

	640,000,000 acres
Deduct for water	51,000,000
Acres of land in the United States . .	589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the *w.* boundary line of Pennsylvania, on the *e.*; the boundary line between Great Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the *n. w.* extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the *n.*; the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio, on the *w.*; and the river Ohio on the *s.* to the afore-mentioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contained, by computation, about 411,000 square miles, in which are

	263,040,000 acres
Deduct for water	43,040,000
To be disposed of by order of Congress, when purchased of the Indians . . .	220,000,000

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated *w.* territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, and several large tracts *s.* of the Ohio, (ceded by N. Carolina, S. Carolina, and Georgia, with certain reservations for the Indians and other purposes), have been, by the cession of some of the original Thirteen States, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and are pledged as a fund for sinking the debt of the United States. Of this territory the Indians now possess a very large proportion. Mr. Jefferson, in his report to congress, Nov. 8, 1791, describes the boundary line between the States and the Indians, as follows: "Beginning at the mouth of the Cayahoga (which falls into the southernmost part of Lake Erie) and running up the river to the portage, between that and the Tuscaroro (or N. E.) branch of the Muskingum; then down the said branch to the forks, at the crossing place above Fort Lawrence; then *w.* towards the portage of the Great Miami to the main branch of that river; then down the Miami to the fork of that river, next below the old fort, which was taken by the French in 1752; thence due *w.* to the river De la Panse (a branch of the Wabash) and down that river to the Wabash." So far the line was precisely determined, and cleared of the claims of the Indians as far back as the year 1790. The tract comprehending the whole country within the above described line, the Wabash, the Ohio, and the *w.* limits of Pennsylvania, contains about 55,000 square miles. With regard to the territory on the *w.* side of the Wabash, the title of the Indians to the lower country, between that river and the Illinois, was supposed to have been formerly extinguished by the French, while in their possession.

Estimate of the number of acres of water, n. and w. of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake	551,000
Lake Michigan	10,368,000
Bay Puan	1,216,000
Lake Huron	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, *w.* part	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers, as included in the year 1790 .	301,000
	43,040,000]

[*Estimate of the number of Acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.*

In the Lakes, &c. as before mentioned		43,040,000
In Lake Erie, *w.* of the line extended from the *n. w.* corner of Pennsylvania, due *n.* to the boundary between the British territory and the United States	410,000	
In Lake Ontario .	2,390,000	
Lake Champlain	500,000	
Chesapeak Bay .	1,700,000	
Albemarle Bay .	330,000	
Delaware Bay .	630,000	
All the rivers within the 13 States, including the Ohio, as in the year 1790	2,000,000	
		7,960,000
		51,000,000
To which add for rivers, &c. in States subsequently embraced in the Union		2,000,000
Total acres of water at the present day		73,000,000

Grand Divisions and statistical Particulars of each State.

The American republic consists of four grand divisions, denominated the *northern*, *middle*, and *southern* states, and the *territorial governments;* the latter being so denominated as having been organized since the establishment of the original states, but now forming integral parts of the whole.

The names of the separate states of the federal republic are classed as follows:

New England, or Northern States.	Vermont New Hampshire District of Maine, belonging to Massachusetts Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut
Middle States.	New York New Jersey Pennsylvania Delaware Ohio
Southern States.	Maryland Virginia Kentucky N. Carolina S. Carolina Georgia Tennessee
Territorial Governments.	Orleans Mississippi Indiana Columbia Louisiana Illinois Michigan

In the following account of each of these states, it must be observed, that the mineral and vegetable productions, manufactures, and exports, are far more numerous than what are mentioned; the limits of each table allowing a notice only of the chief productions and staple commodities of the country. A more specific account may be found in their separate articles.

Statistical Particulars of each State in the American Union.

NEW ENGLAND, OR NORTHERN STATES.

Vermont.

Length and breadth; 158 by 70 miles.

Face of the country; hilly and mountainous.

Divisions; 12 counties, 19 towns.

Principal rivers; White, Black, La Moelle, Onion.

Mountains; Killington, Mansfield, Camel's Rump.

Mineral productions; iron-ore, lead, pipe-clay, marble.

Vegetable productions; wheat, rye, corn, flax, apples.

Manufactures; iron, hollow ware, pot-ashes, paper.

Exports; pot-ashes, provisions, horses, grain, lumber.

Chief towns; Bennington, Burlington, Windsor.

Population of the State in 1810; 217,913.

Religion; Congregationalists, Baptists, Methodists.

New Hampshire.

Length and breadth; 168 by 90 miles.

Face of the country; mountainous.

Divisions; five counties, 214 towns and locations.]

[Principal rivers; Connecticut, Merrimack, Piscataqua.

Mountains; White, Monadnock, Moosehillock.

Mineral productions; copper, iron, black lead, alum.

Vegetable productions; wheat, corn, hemp, apples, pears.

Manufactures; iron, hats, snuff, chocolate, duck.

Exports; lumber, oil, flax-seed, live stock, pot-ashes.

Chief towns; Portsmouth, Concord, Exeter, Amherst.

Population of the state in 1810; 214,414.

Religion; Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Baptists.

Maine.

Length and breadth; 200 by 120 miles.

Face of the country; highlands and plains.

Divisions; six counties, 50 towns.

Principal rivers; Penobscot, Kennebeck, Androscoggin.

Mountains; high lands.

Mineral productions; mountain and bog ore, copperas, sulphur.

Vegatable productions; hops, wheat, oats, spruce, fir, rockweed.

Manufactures; clothing, and other necessaries of life.

Exports; lumber, salt provisions, pot-ash.

Chief towns; Portland, York, Wiscassett.

Population of the State in 1810; 228,705.

Religion; Congregationalists, Baptists, Methodists.

Massachusetts.

Length and breadth; 170 by 94 miles.

Face of the country; mountains and plains.

Divisions; 12 counties, 279 towns.

Principal rivers; Connecticut, Taunton, Merrimack.

Mountains; Wachuset, Mount Tom, Saddleback.

Mineral productions; copper, iron, black lead, pyrites, asbestos.

Vegetable productions; wheat, rye, hemp, flax, apples, peaches, &c.

Manufactures; duck, paper, cards, cordage, ships, spirits, glass.

Exports; lumber, fish, oil, provisions, live stock, cordage, &c.

Chief towns; Boston, Springfield, Worcester, Plymouth.

Population of the state in 1810; 472,040.

Religion; Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers.

Rhode Island.

Length and breadth; 47 by 37 miles.

Face of the country; hills and plains.

Divisions; five counties, 30 towns.

Principal rivers; Providence Taunton, Pawtucket.

Mountains; Mount Hope, Misery, Whestone.

Mineral productions; iron, copper, lime, marble.

Vegetable productions; grass, corn, rye, fruits in plenty.

Manufactures; cotton, linen, and tow cloth, spirits.

Exports; cattle, lumber, fish, provisions, flax seed.

Chief towns; Newport, Providence, Kingston.

Population of the state in 1810; 76,931.

Religion; Baptists, Americans, Moravians, Jews.

Connecticut.

Length and breadth; 100 by 72 miles.

Face of the country; mountains, hills, and valleys.

Divisions; eight counties, 100 towns.

Principal rivers; Connecticut, Housatonic, Thames.

Mountains; Long, Great Craig, Hemlock.

Mineral productions; iron, lead, copper, talcs, spetter.

Vegetable productions; India corn, oats, rye, buckwheat, fruits, hemp.

Manufactures; cotton, glass, gunpowder, hollow ware.

Exports; cattle, lumber, provisions, hay.

Chief towns; Hartford, Newhaven, New London.

Population of the state in 1810; 261,942.

Religion; Congregationalists, Episcopalians, Baptists.

Middle States.

New York.

Length and breadth; 350 by 300 miles.

Face of the country; low and flat towards the sea, hilly in the interior.

Divisions; 30 counties, 292 towns.

Principal rivers; Hudson, Mohawk, Seneca, Genessee.

Mountains; Kattskill, and part of the Allegany range.

Mineral productions; lead, iron, and coal-mines, spar, magnez.

Vegetable productions; wheat, hemp, aspen, cedar, fruits.]

[Manufactures; loaf sugar, glass, cutlery, iron, paper, furniture.
Exports; every article of domestic and foreign produce.
Chief towns; New York, Albany, Hudson, Fishkill.
Population of the state in 1810; 959,220.
Religion; Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Quakers, Jews.

New Jersey.

Length and breadth; 160 by 52 miles.
Face of the country; flat, low, and marshy.
Divisions; 13 counties, 94 towns.
Principal rivers; Hackensack, Raritan, and Passaick.
Mountains; Neversink and Centre Hills.
Mineral productions; iron and coal mines, copper, lead.
Vegetable productions; apples, pears, peaches, corn, barley, pines, firs.
Manufactures; iron, flour, nails, leather.
Exports; iron castings, hollow ware, nails, flour.
Chief towns; Trenton, Burlington, Brunswick.
Population of the state in 1810; 245,562.
Religion: Presbyterians, Armenians, Baptists.

Pennsylvania.

Length and breadth; 288 by 156 miles.
Face of the country; low and flat towards the sea, hilly in the interior.
Divisions; 35 counties, 523 towns.
Principal rivers; Delaware, Susquehannah, Allegany.
Mountains; Kittatinny, Tuscarora, Great Warrior.
Mineral productions; iron, copper, coal mines.
Vegetable productions; wheat, oats, flax, rye, fruits.
Manufactures; iron, cabinet work, Glauber salts, muskets.
Exports; flour, and other domestic and foreign produce.
Chief towns; Philadelphia, Carlisle, Pittsburg.
Population of the state in 1810; 810,163.
Religion; Presbyterians, Quakers, Jews, Moravians.

Delaware.

Length and breadth; 92 by 24 miles.
Face of the country; low, swampy, and level.
Divisions; three counties, 24 towns.
Mountains; no mountains of any note.
Mineral productions; bog iron-ore, white clay, &c.
Vegetable productions; wheat, rye, oats, corn, flax, hemp, buckwheat.
Manufactures; flour, paper, snuff, cotton.
Exports; wheat, flour, lumber, snuff.
Chief towns; Wilmington, Dover, Lewis.
Population of the state in 1810; 72,674.
Religion; Presbyterians, Quakers, Episcopalians.

Ohio.

Length and breadth; 220 by 200 miles.
Face of the country; hills and plains.
Divisions; counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Muskingum, Scioto, Great Miami.
Mountains; hilly, but not mountainous.
Mineral productions; iron ore, lead, coal, freestone, white clay.
Vegetable productions; wheat, hemp, flax, corn, grapes, &c.
Manufactures; flour, clothing, and other necessaries.
Exports; flour, corn, wheat, provisions.
Chief towns; Chillicothe, Cincinnatus, Marietta.
Population of the state in 1810; 230,760.
Religion; Presbyterians, Baptists, Armenians.

Southern States.

Maryland.

Length and breadth; 170 by 105 miles.
Face of the country; hills and plains.
Divisions; 19 counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Chesapeake, Potowmack, Patapsco.
Mountains; blue ridge in the *w.* part of the state.
Mineral productions; iron ore and coal mines.
Vegetable productions; wheat, tobacco, hemp, flax, fruit.
Manufactures; iron, hollow ware, flour, tobacco.
Exports; pork, flour, tobacco, hemp, fruit, iron.
Chief towns; Baltimore, Annapolis, Georgetown.
Population of the state in 1810; 380,546.
Religion; Roman Catholics, Lutherans, Quakers, &c.

Virginia.

Length and breadth; 448 by 224 miles.
Face of the country; flat and low towards the coast, mountainous behind.
Divisions; 122 towns and counties.]

[Principal rivers; Potowmack, Rappahannock, James.
Mountains; Blue Ridge, Laurel, Allegany.
Mineral productions; lead, copper, iron, coal, black lead, marble.
Vegetable productions; tobacco, cotton, wheat, hemp, corn.
Manufactures; lead and iron works, copper, some cloth.
Exports; tobacco is the chief article of export.
Chief towns; Richmond, Norfolk, Petersburgh.
Population of the state in 1810; 965,079.
Religion; Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Methodists.

Kentucky.

Length and breadth; 350 by 130 miles.
Face of the country; hills and plains.
Divisions; 42 counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Ohio, Licking, Kentucky, Green.
Mountains; none of any particular note.
Mineral productions; saltpetre, iron, lead, limestone.
Vegetable productions; corn, hemp, wheat, coffee, pawpaw trees, &c.
Manufactures; flour, gunpowder, cordage, iron, ships, whiskey.
Exports; provisions, &c. conveyed down the Ohio to New Orleans.
Chief towns; Frankfort, Lexington, Louisville.
Population of the state in 1810; 406,511.
Religion; Presbyterians, Congregationalists, Baptists.

North Carolina.

Length and breadth; 370 by 162 miles.
Face of the country; flat towards the coast, mountainous in the back country.
Divisions; three districts, 60 counties.
Principal rivers; Roanoke, Pamlico, Neuse.
Mountains; Apalachian, Allegany, Tryon.
Mineral productions; iron, coal; gold has recently been found.
Vegetable productions; wheat, cotton, hemp, corn, rice, tobacco.
Manufactures; paper, pitch, tar, oil, iron.
Exports; lumber, naval stores, tobacco, wheat, corn.
Chief towns; Raleigh, Newbern, Edenton.
Population of the state in 1810; 563,526.
Religion; Congregationalists, Baptists, Mennonists.

South Carolina.

Length and breadth; 267 by 190 miles.
Face of the country; generally flat, low, and sandy.
Divisions; nine districts, 20 parishes, 23 counties.
Principal rivers; Edisto, Santee, Pedee.
Mountains; Apalachia, Tyron, Hogback, at the extremity of the state.
Mineral productions; gold, lead, silver, copper, carnelion.
Vegetable productions; pines, oak, hickory, cotton, rice, indigo, corn.
Manufactures; pitch, tar, &c. iron, cotton, and woollen clothing.
Exports; cotton and rice are the staple commodities.
Chief towns; Charleston, Columbia, Camden.
Population of the state in 1810; 414,935.
Religion; Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists.

Georgia.

Length and breadth; 500 by 250 miles.
Face of the country; level and flat upwards of 120 miles from the coast.
Divisions; 24 counties, 129 towns and districts.
Principal rivers; Savannah, Apalachicola, Altamaha.
Mountains; a part of the Apalachian and Allegany ridge.
Mineral productions; silver, lead, copper, &c.
Vegetable productions; pine, cedar, palmetto, oak, cotton, rice, indigo.
Manufactures; pitch, tar, &c. leather, cotton, and woollen clothing.
Exports; rice, cotton, tobacco, indigo, naval stores.
Chief towns; Savannah, Augusta, Louisville, St. Mary's.
Population of the state in 1810; 252,433.
Religion; Presbyterians, Methodists, Jews, Baptists.

Tenessee (West and East).

Length and breadth; 420 by 90 miles.
Face of the country; mountains and plains.
Divisions; three districts, 18 counties.
Principal rivers; Tennessee, Cumberland, Holsten.
Mountains; Cumberland, Clinch, and Bald Mountains.
Mineral productions; saltpetre, iron, ochre, copperas, &c.
Vegetable productions; cotton, tobacco, coffee, hemp, corn, indigo.
Manufactures; flour, cotton, and woollen cloths, iron, &c.]

[Exports; domestic produce, furs, ginseng, cattle.
Chief towns; Knoxville, Nashville, Jonesborough.
Population of the state in 1810; 261,727.
Religion; Presbyterians, Baptists, Tunkers, Methodists.

Territorial Governments.

Orleans.

Length and breadth; uncertain.
Face of the country; open and fertile.
Divisions; counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Mississippi and Ohio.
Mountains; none of consequence.
Mineral productions; saltpetre, salt springs, lead, iron, copper.
Vegetable productions; indigo, cotton, rice, beans.
Manufactures; cotton mills, sugar baking.
Exports; sugar, cotton, indigo, lead, lumber, tobacco.
Chief town;
Population of the state in 1810; 76,566.
Religion; in an unsettled state.

Mississippi.

Length and breadth; 380 by 250 miles.
Face of the country; mountains and plains.
Divisions; three counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Mississippi, Yazoo, Tombigby.
Mountains; Allegany range.
Mineral productions; gold, silver, lead, copper, precious stones.
Vegetable productions; most of the tropical fruits, rice, cotton, indigo.
Manufactures; flour, provisions, and domestic necessaries.
Exports; flour, provisions, furs, rice, cotton, indigo.
Chief town; Natchez.
Population of the state in 1810; 40,352.
Religion; in a fluctuating state.

Indiana.

Length and breadth; 345 by 300 miles.
Face of the country; hills and plains.
Divisions; counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Wabash, Kaskaskia, Illinois.
Mountains; Illinois and Wabash Hills.
Mineral productions; silver, lead, iron, coal, marble, salt.
Vegetable productions; wheat, corn, rye, hemp, flax, mustard, apple trees.
Manufactures; flour, clothing, and domestic necessaries.
Exports; wheat, flour, corn, salt provisions.
Chief towns: Vincennes, Kaskaskia, Clarkesville.
Population of the state in 1810; 24,520.
Religion; Armenians, Mennonists, Methodists.

Columbia.

Length and breadth; uncertain.
Face of the country; nearly the same as Virginia.
Divisions; towns and counties.
Principal river; Patowmack.
Mountains; Blue Ridge.
Mineral productions; iron-ore and copper.
Vegetable productions; tobacco, cotton, wheat, hemp.
Manufactures; iron wares.
Exports; tobacco.
Chief town; Georgetown.
Population of the state in 1810; 24,023.
Religion; various persuasions.

Louisiana.

Length and breadth; 1,400 by 1,110 miles.
Face of the country; level and flat, with vast *prairies*, or meadows.
Divisions; towns, villages, and parishes.
Principal rivers; Mississippi, Missouri, Mobile.
Mountains; none of any consequence.
Mineral productions; saltpetre, salt springs, lead, iron, copper.
Vegetable productions; oak, pine, cedars, fruits, sugar, cotton, furs.
Manufactures; cotton mills, sugar-baking, Negro clothing.
Exports: sugar, cotton, indigo, lead, lumber, tobacco.
Chief town; New Orleans.
Population of the state in 1810; 20,845.
Religion; Roman Catholic, Presbyterians, Methodists, Jews.

Illinois.

Length and breadth; uncertain.
Face of the country; woody, hilly, and marshy.
Divisions; towns and counties.
Principal rivers; Meame and St. Joseph.
Mountains;
Mineral productions; coals.
Vegetable productions; wheat, fruit, tobacco, medicinal plants.]

[Manufactures;
Exports;
Chief town; Cahokia.
Population of the state in 1810; 12,282.
Religion; formerly Catholics, now mostly savages.

Michigan.

Length and breadth; 240 by 130 miles.
Face of the country; hills and plains.
Divisions; counties and towns.
Principal rivers; Mariamne, Grand, Huron.
Mountains; hilly land, which runs *n.* and *s.*
Mineral productions; lead, coal mines, salt-springs.
Vegetable productions; corn, wheat, hemp, grasses, hickory.
Manufactures; flour, clothing, and articles of domestic use.
Exports; corn, flour, salt provisions.
Chief town; Detroit.
Population of the state in 1810; 4,762.
Religion; Congregationalists, Moravians, Armenians.

Lakes and Rivers.—There is nothing in other parts of the globe, which resembles the prodigious chain of lakes in this part of the world. They may properly be termed inland seas of fresh water: and even those of the second or third class in magnitude are of larger circuit than the greatest lake in the eastern continent. Some of the most *n.* lakes belonging to the United States, have never been surveyed, or even visited by the white people; of course we have no description of them which can be relied on as accurate. Others have been partially surveyed, and their relative situation determined. The best account of them which we have been able to procure, will be seen under their respective articles. The largest rivers that border upon or pass through the United States, are Mississippi, Ohio, and Tennesse, on the *w.* side of the Alleghany Mountains; and the Alatamaha, Savannah, Santée, Cape Fear, Roanoke, James, Patowmac, Susquehannah, Delaware, Hudson, Connecticut, Merrimack, Piscataqua, Androscoggin, Kennebeck, and Penobscot, whose general courses are from *n. w.* and *n.* to *s. e.* and *s.* and which empty into the Atlantic Ocean. The names of the most remarkable lakes are, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, Ontario, Champlaine, George, Memphremagog, Winipiscogee, and Umbagog. The most remarkable swamps are Ouaquaphenogaw, or Eknanfanoka, nearly 300 miles in circumference, in the State of Georgia; the two Dismals in North Carolina, of immense extent, each containing a large lake in its centre; and Buffaloe Swamp, in the *n. w.* parts of Pennsylvania. For a description of which we must also refer to their respective articles.

Face of the country.—The tract of country belonging to the United States is happily variegated with plains and mountains, hills and vallies. Some parts are rocky, particularly New England, the *n.* part of New York and New Jersey, and a broad space, including the several ridges of the long range of mountains which run *s. w.* through Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, and part of Georgia, dividing the waters which flow into the Atlantic from those which fall into the Mississppi. In the parts *e.* of the Allegany mountains, in the Southern States, the country for several 100 miles in length, and 60 or 70, and sometimes more, in breadth, is level and entirely free from stone. It has been a question agitated by the curious, whether the extensive tract of low flat country, which fronts the several states *s.* of New York, and extends back to the hills, has remained in its present form and situation ever since the flood: or whether it has been made by the particles of earth which have been washed down from the adjacent mountains, and by the accumulation of soil from the decay of vegetable substances; or by earth washed out of the bay of Mexico by the Gulf Stream, and lodged on the coast; or by the recess of the ocean, occasioned by a change in some other parts of the earth. Several phenomena deserve consideration in forming an opinion on this question.

1. It is a fact, well known to every person of observation who has lived in, or travelled through, the Southern States, that marine shells and other substances which are peculiar to the sea shore, are almost invariably found by digging 18 or 20 feet below the surface of the earth. In sinking a well many miles from the sea, was found, at the depth of 20 feet, every appearance of a salt marsh, that is, marsh grass, marsh mud, and brackish water. In all this flat country, until you come to the hilly land, wherever you dig a well, you find the water, at a certain depth, fresh and tolerable good; but if you exceed that depth two or three feet, you come to a saltish or brackish water that is scarcely drinkable, and the earth dug up resembles, in appearance and smell, that which is dug up on the edges of the salt marshes.

2. On and near the margin of the rivers are frequently found sand hills, which appear to have]

[been drifted into ridges by the force of water. At the bottom of some of the banks in the rivers, 15 or 20 feet below the surface of the earth, are washed out from the solid ground, logs, branches, and leaves of trees; and the whole bank, from bottom to top, appears streaked with layers of logs, leaves, and sand. These appearances are seen far up the rivers, from 80 to an 100 miles from the sea, where, when the rivers are low, the banks are from 15 to 20 feet high. As you proceed down the rivers towards the sea, the banks decrease in height, but still are formed of layers of sand, leaves, and logs, some of which are entirely sound, and appear to have been suddenly covered to a considerable depth.

3. It has been observed, that the rivers in the Southern States frequently vary their channels; that the swamps and low grounds are constantly filling up, and that the land, in many places, annually infringes upon the ocean. It is an authenticated fact, that no longer ago than 1771, at Cape Lookout, on the coast of North Carolina, in about lat. 34° 50′, there was an excellent harbour, capacious enough to receive 100 sail of shipping at a time, in a good depth of water: it is now entirely filled up, and is solid ground. Instances of this kind are frequent along the coast.

It is observable, likewise, that there is a gradual descent of about 800 feet, by measurement, from the foot of the mountains to the sea board. This descent continues, as is demonstrated by soundings, far into the sea.

4. It is worthy of observation, that the soil on the banks of the rivers is proportionably coarse or fine according to its distance from the mountains. When you first leave the mountains, and for a considerable distance, it is observable, that the soil is coarse, with a large mixture of sand and shining heavy particles. As you proceed toward the sea, the soil is less coarse, and so on; in proportion as you advance, the soil is finer and finer, until finally is deposited a soil so fine, that it consolidates into perfect clay; but a clay of a peculiar quality, for a great part of it has intermixed with it reddish streaks and veins, like a species of ochre, brought probably from the Red Lands which lie up towards the mountains. This clay, when dug up and exposed to the weather, will dissolve into a fine mould, without the least mixture of sand or any gritty substance whatever. Now we know that running waters, when turbid, will deposit, first, the coarsest and heaviest particles, mediately, those of the several intermediate degrees of fineness, and ultimately, those which are the most light and subtle; and such in fact is the general quality of the soil on the banks of the southern rivers.

5. It is a well known fact, that on the banks of Savannah river, about 90 miles from the sea in a direct line, and 150 or 200, as the river runs, there is a very remarkable collection of oyster shells of an uncommon size. They run in a *n. e.* and *s. w.* direction, nearly parallel to the sea coast, in three distinct ridges, which together occupy a space of seven miles in breadth. The ridges commence at Savannah river, and have been traced as far *s.* as the *n.* branches of the Alatamaha river. They are found in such quantities, as that the indigo planters carry them away in large boat loads, for the purpose of making lime water, to be used in the manufacture of indigo. There are thousands and thousands of tons still remaining. The question is, how came they here? It cannot be supposed that they were carried by land. Neither is it probable that they were conveyed in canoes, or boats, to such a distance from the place where oysters are now found. The uncivilized natives, agreeably to their roving manner of living, would rather have removed to the sea shore, than have been at such immense labour in procuring oysters. Besides, the difficulties of conveying them would have been insurmountable. They would not only have had a strong current in the river against them, an obstacle which would not have been easily overcome by the Indians, who have ever had a great aversion to labour; but could they have surmounted this difficulty, oysters conveyed such a distance, either by land or water, in so warm a climate, would have spoiled on the passage, and have become useless. The circumstance of these shells being found in such quantities, at so great a distance from the sea, can be rationally accounted for in no other way, than by supposing that the sea shore was formerly near this bed of shells, and that the ocean has since, by the operation of certain causes not yet fully investigated, receded. These phenomena, it is presumed, will authorize this conclusion, that a great part of the flat country which spreads *e.* of the Allegany mountains, had, in some past period, a superincumbent sea; or rather, that the constant accretion of soil from the various causes before hinted at, has forced it to retire.

Mountains.—The tract of the country *e.* of Hudson's river, comprehending part of the State of New York, the four New England States,]

[and Vermont, is rough, hilly, and in some parts mountainous. These mountains are more particularly described under New England. In all parts of the world, and particularly on this *w.* continent, it is observable, that as you depart from the ocean, or from a river, the land gradually rises; and the height of land, in common, is about equally distant from the water on either side. The Andes, in South America, form the height of land between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The high lands between the district of Maine and the province of Lower Canada, divide the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, *n.* and into the Atlantic, *s.* The Green Mountains, in Vermont, divide the waters which flow *e.* into Connecticut river from those which fall *w.* into Lake Champlain, Lake George, and Hudson's river.

Between the Atlantic, the Mississippi, and the lakes, runs a long range of mountains, made up of a great number of ridges. These mountains extend *n. e.* and *s. w.* nearly parallel to the sea coast, about 900 miles in length, and from 60 to 150 and 200 miles in breadth. Mr. Evans observes, with respect to that part of these mountains which he travelled over, viz. in the back part of Pennsylvania, that scarcely one acre in ten is capable of culture. This, however, is not the case in all parts of this range. Numerous tracts of fine arable and grazing land intervene between the ridges. The different ridges which compose this immense range of mountains, have different names in different States.

As you advance from the Atlantic, the first ridge in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina, is the Blue Ridge, or South Mountain, which is from 130 to 200 miles from the sea. Between this and the North Mountain spreads a large fertile vale; next lies the Allegany ridge; next beyond this is the Long Ridge, called the Laurel Mountains, in a spur of which, about lat. 36°, is a spring of water 50 feet deep, very cold, and, it is said, as blue as indigo. From these several ridges proceed innumerable nameless branches or spurs. The Kittatinny mountain runs through the *n.* parts of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. All these ridges, except the Allegany, are separated by rivers, which appear to have forced their passages through solid rocks.

The principal ridge is the Allegany, which has been descriptively called the Back-bone of the United States. The general name for these mountains, taken collectively, seems not yet to have been determined. Mr. Evans calls them the Endless Mountains: others have called them the Appalachian Mountains, from a tribe of Indians who live on a river which proceeds from this mountain, called the Appalachicola. But the most common name is the Allegany Mountains, so called, either from the principal ridge of the range, or from their running nearly parallel to the Allegany or Ohio river; which, from its head waters, till it empties into the Mississippi, is known and called by the name of Allegany river, by the Seneca and other tribes of the six nations, who once inhabited it. These mountains are not confusedly scattered and broken, rising here and there into high peaks, overtopping each other, but stretch along in uniform ridges, scarcely half a mile high. They spread as you proceed *s.* and some of them terminate in high perpendicular bluffs. Others gradually subside into a level country, giving rise to the rivers which run *s.* into the Gulf of Mexico.

They afford many curious phenomena, from which naturalists have deduced many theories of the earth. Some of them have been whimsical enough. Mr. Evans supposes that the most obvious of theories which have been formed of the earth is, that it was originally made of the ruins of another. "Bones and shells which escaped the fate of softer animal substances, we find mixed with the old materials, and elegantly preserved in the loose stones and rocky bases of the highest of these hills." With deference, however, to Mr. Evans's opinion, these appearances have been much more rationally accounted for by supposing the reality of the flood, of which Moses has given us an account. Mr. Evans thinks this too great a miracle to obtain belief. But whether is it a greater miracle for the Creator to alter a globe of earth by a deluge, when made, or to create one new from the ruins of another? The former certainly is not less credible than the latter. These mountains," says our author, "existed in their present elevated height before the deluge, but not so bare of soil as now." How Mr. Evans came to be so circumstantially acquainted with these pretended facts, is difficult to determine, unless we suppose him to have been an Antediluvian, and to have surveyed them accurately before the convulsions of the deluge; and until we can be fully assured of this, we must be excused if not assenting to his opinion, and in adhering to the old philosophy of Moses and his advocates. We have every reason to believe that the primitive state of the earth was totally metamorphosed by the first convulsion of nature at the time of the]

[deluge; that the fountains of the great deep were indeed broken up, and that the various strata of the earth were dissevered, and thrown into every possible degree of confusion and disorder. Hence those vast piles of mountains which lift their craggy cliffs to the clouds, were probably thrown together from the floating ruins of the earth: and this conjecture is remarkably confirmed by the vast number of fossils and other marine exuviæ which are found imbeded on the tops of mountains, in the interior parts of continents remote from the sea, in all parts of the world hitherto explored. The various circumstances attending these marine bodies leave us to conclude, that they were actually generated, lived, and died in the very beds wherein they were found, and therefore these beds must have originally been at the bottom of the ocean, though now in many instances elevated several miles above its surface. Hence it appears that mountains and continents were not primary productions of nature, but of a very distant period of time from the creation of the world; a time long enough for the strata to have acquired their greatest degree of cohesion and hardness; and for the testaceous matter of marine shells to become changed to a stony substance; for in the fissures of the limestone and other strata, fragments of the same shell have been frequently found adhering to each side of the cleft, in the very state in which they were originally broken; so that if the several parts were brought together, they would apparently tally with each other exactly. A very considerable time therefore must have elapsed between the chaotic state of the earth and the deluge, which agrees with the account of Moses, who makes it a little upwards of 1,600 years. These observations are intended to shew, in one instance out of many others, the agreement between revelation and reason, between the account which Moses gives us of the creation and deluge, and the present appearances of nature. Those who wish to have this agreement more fully and satisfactorily stated, are referred to a very learned and ingenious "Inquiry into the original state and formation of the earth," by John Whitehurst, F.R.S. to whom we are indebted for some of the foregoing observations.

Soil and Vegetable Productions.

In the United States are to be found every species of soil that the earth affords. In one part of them or another, they produce all the various kinds of fruits, grain, pulse, and hortuline plants and roots, which are found in Europe, and have been thence transplanted to America. Besides these, a great variety of native vegeable productions.

The natural history of the American States, particularly of New England, is yet in its infancy. Several ingenious foreigners, skilled in botany, have visited the Southern and some of the Middle States, and Canada, and these States have also had ingenious botanists of their own, who have made considerable progress in describing the productions of those parts of America which they have visited; but New England seems not to have engaged the attention either of foreign or American botanists. There was never an attempt to describe botanically, the vegetable productions of the Eastern States, till the Rev. Dr. Cutler, of Ipswich, turned his attention to the subject. The result of his first inquiries was published in the first volume of the "Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences." To his liberal and generous communications, we are principally indebted for our account of the vegetable productions of the Eastern and Middle States.

N. B. The following catalogues are all incomplete, and designed only to give general ideas. They contain, however, more correct information concerning the Natural History of New England, than has yet been published. A specific description of the principal grains, fruits, trees, insects, birds, animals, &c. will be found under their proper heads in the Appendix to this work.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Grain cultivated in the Eastern and Middle States.

Indian corn (*Zeamays*) a native grain of North America. The varieties of this grain, occasioned by a difference in soil, cultivation, and climate, are almost endless. Winter and summer rye (*secale cereale, hybernum et verum,*) the only species cultivated by the farmers. The winter rye succeeds best in ground newly cleared, but summer rye is frequently sown in old towns, where the land has been long under cultivation. The winter and summer rye are the same species, forming two varieties; but the winter and summer wheat are two distinct species. Several species of barley are cultivated, the most common is the six ranked (*Hordeum hexastichon,*) and the two ranked (*Hordeum distichon.*) The wheat principally cultivated are the winter and]

[summer *(Trictium hybernum et æstivum.)*—Oats *(Avena sativa.)*—Buck-wheat *(Polygonum fagopirum.)*

In the Southern States, as far *n.* as Virginia, where the lands are suitable, besides the grain already mentioned, they cultivate rice. This grain was brought into Carolina first by Sir Nathaniel Johnson, in 1688; and afterwards more and of a different kind, probably a variety, was imported by a ship from Madagascar, in 1696; till which time it was not much cultivated. It succeeds well also on the Ohio river, where it is planted both on the high and low grounds, and in the same fields with Indian corn and other grain. A gentleman who had planted it several years in his garden, informed Dr. Cutler that it yielded at the rate of 80 bushels an acre. At Marietta, it has answered the most sanguine expectations of the inhabitants, producing equal to any other grain, without being at any time overflowed with water. The Doctor himself saw it growing in a very flourishing state, on high land, but it had not, at the season he saw it, began to bloom. It was said not to be of the same species of Carolina rice. It is probably the wild rice, which we are informed grows in plenty, in some of the interior parts of N. America, and is the most valuable of all the spontaneous productions of the country. In Pennsylvania grows a sort of grain called, by the Germans, Spelts, which resembles wheat; and is a very valuable grain.

Cultivated Grasses in the Eastern and Middle States.

All the grasses, cultivated in the Middle and New England States, are found growing indigenous. It is not improbable, however, that some of them may be naturalized exotics. The following are the principal grasses sown in our cultivated ground, or in any way propagated for seed and hay.

Herd's Grass or Fox Tail, (*Alopecurus pratensis,*) this is reckoned the best grass we have, is a native, and supposed to be peculiar to this country. Blue Grass *(Alopecurus geniculatus.)*—Many species of Bent *(Agrostis,)* particularly the Rhode Island Bent *(Agrostus interrupta.)*—The small and great English Grass *(Poa trivialis et pratensis.)*—Wire Grass *(Poa compressa.)*—Fowl Meadow Grass *(Poa aviaria, spiculis subbifloris.)*—Red and white clover *(Trifolium pratense et repens.)*

The grasses of Virginia, according to Mr. Jefferson, are Lucerne, St. Foin, Burnet, Timothy, Ray, and Orchard grass, red, white, aud yellow clover; Greenswerd, Blue grass and Crab grass. South of Virginia very little attention is paid to the cultivation of grasses. The winters are so mild, that the cattle find a tolerable supply of food in the woods.

Native Grasses in New England.

Besides the cultivated grasses, the States of New England abound with a great variety which are found growing in their native soils and situations, many of which have not been described by any botanical writers. The small experiments which have been made, sufficiently evince that several of them make excellent hay. They might be greatly improved by cultivation, and are highly worthy the attention of our farmers. Those which are found most common are the following; viz.

The vernal grass *(Anthoxanthum odoratum.)*—Timothy, or bulbus Cat's-tail grass *(Phleum pratense.)*—Several species of Panic grass *(Panicum*—Several species of Bent *(Agrostis)*—Hair grass *(Aira aquatica)*—Numerous species of *Poa.*—Quaking Grass, *(Briza)* several species—Cock's-foot Grass *(Dactylis glomerata)*—Millet *(Milium effusum)*—Fescue Grass *(Festuco)* many species—Oat Grass *(Avena spicata)*—Reed Grass *(Arundo)* several species.—Brome Grass *(Bromus squarrosus)*—Lime Grass *(Elymus hystrix)*—Barley Grass *(Hordeum pratense)*—Dog's or couch Grass *(Triticum repens.)*—Many species of Rush Grass *(Juncus.)*—Numerous species of *Carex*, in fresh and salt marshy ground. Several species of Beard Grass *(Andropogon)*—Soft Grass *(Holcus lanatus et odoratus.)* Besides these, there are many valuable grasses, which, at present, are non-descripts.

Wild Fruits in New England.

Black Currant *(Ribes nigrum)*—Gooseberry *(Ribes glossularia)*—Prickly Gooseberry *(Ribes cynosbati)*—Two species of Grapes—the Black Grape *(Vitis labrusca,)* and Fox Grape *(Vitis vulpina.)* Of these two species we have many varieties, differing only in size, colour, and taste. An excellent wine, and in large quantities, has lately been made by the French people, at their new settlement on the Ohio river, from the native grapes, without any kind of cultivation. They collected the grapes promiscuously from all the varieties growing in that country. By separating them, wines of different, and no doubt some of them, of a much better]

[quality, might have been made. The native grape is propagated with great ease; its growth is luxuriant, overspreading the highest trees in the forests, and by proper attention would afford an ample supply of wines, in the northern as well as southern States. The principal difficulty seems to be the want of a proper knowledge of the process in making wine, and preparing it for use. Barberry Bush *(Berberis vulgaris)*—Whortleberry *(Vaccinium ligustrinum)*—Blueberry *(Vaccinium corymbosum)*—White Whortleberry *(Vaccinium album)*—Indian Gooseberry *(Vaccinium frondosum)*—Long-leaved Whortleberry *(Vaccinium stamineum)*—Craneberry *(Vaccinium oxycouos)*—Yellow Plum *(Prunus americana)*—Beach Plum *(Prunus maratima)*—Large Black Cherry *(Prunus nigra)*—Purple Cherry *(Prunus virginiana)*—Wild Red Cherry *(Prunus rubra)*—Dwarf or Choak Cherry *(Prunus canadensis)*—Mountain Cherry *(Prunus montana)*—Service-Tree *(Mespilus canadensis)*—Brambleberry *(Rubus occidentalis)*—Sawteat Blackberry, or Bumblekites *(Rubus fruticosus)*—Briar Blackberry *(Rubus moluccanus)*—Dewberry *(Rubus hispi-) dus)*—Common Raspberry *(Rubus idæus)*—Smooth-stalked Raspberry *(Rubus canadensis)*—Superb Raspberry *(Rubus odoratus)*—Strawberry *(Fragaria vesca.)* The native strawberry is much improved by cultivation, and produces a larger and better-flavoured fruit than the exotic.—Mulberry *(Morus nigra.)*

For information on this article, respecting the Southern States, the reader may consult what Catesby, Clayton, Jefferson, and Bartram have written upon it.

Nut Fruit.

White Oak *(Quercus alba)*—Red Oak *(Quercus rubra)* and several other species with smaller fruit.—Black Walnut *(Juglans nigra)*—White Walnut, Butternut, or Oilnut *(Juglans cathartica)*—White or Round Nut Hiccory *(Juglans alba)*—Shag-bark Hiccory *(Juglans cineria)*—Chesnut *(Fagus castanea)*—Chinquipin, or Dwarf Chesnut *(Fagus pumila)*—Beech Nut *(Fagus sylvatica)*—Hazle Nut *(Corylus avallana)*—Filbert *(Corylus cornuta.)*

We may here mention the Paccan, or Illinois Nut *(Juglans alba, foliolis lanceolatis, acuminatis, serratis, tomentosis, fructu minore, ovato, compresso, vix insculpto, dulci, putamine, tenerrimo. Jefferson.)* This nut is about the size of a large, long acorn, and of an oval form, the shell is easily cracked, and the kernel shaped like that of a walnut. The trees which bear this fruit grow, naturally, on the Mississippi and its branches, lat. *s.* 40° *n.* They grow well when planted in the Southern Atlantic States.

Medicinal Plants in New England.

Among the native and uncultivated plants of New England, the following have been employed for medicinal purposes. Water Horehound *(Lycopus virginica)*—Blue Flag *(Iris virginica)*—Skunk Cabbage *(Arum Americanum. Catesb. and Dracontium fœtidum. Linn.)*—Partridge-berry *(Mitchella repens)*—Great and Marsh Plaintain *(Plantago major et maratima)*—Witch Hazel *(Hamamelis virginica)*—Hound's Tongue *(Cynoglossum officinale)*—Comfrey *(Symphytum officin.)*—Bear's-ear Sanicle *(Cortusa gmelini)*—Appleperu *(Datura strammonium)*—Bitter-sweet *(Solanum dulca-mare)*—Tivertwig, or American Mazerion *(Celastrus scandens)*—Elm *(Ulmus americana)*—Great Laserwort and Wild Angelica *(Laserpitium tribolum, et latifolium)*—Angelica, or American Masterwort *(Angelica lucida)*—Water Elder *(Viburnum opulus)*—Elder *(Sambucus nigra)*—Chickweed *(Alsina media)*—Pettimorrel, or Life of Man *(Aralia racemosa)*—Sarsaparilla *(Aralia nudicaulis?)*—Marsh Rosemary *(Statice limonium)*—Sundew *(Drosera rotundifolia)*—Solomon's Seal *(Convallaria stellata?)*—Adder's Tongue *(Convallaria bifolia)*—Unicorn *(Aletris farinosa)*—Sweet Flag *(Acorus calamus)*—Several species of Dock *(Rumex)*—Bistort *(Polygonum bistorta)*—Spice Wood, or Feverbush *(Laurus benzoin)*—Sassafras *(Laurus sassafras)*—Consumption Root *(Pyrola rotundifolia)*—Rheumatism Weed *(Pyrola minor)*—Mouse Ear *(Cerastium viscosum)*—Gargit, or Skoke *(Phytolacca decandria)*—Wild Hyssop *(Lythrum hysopis)*—Agrimony *(Agrimonia cupatoria)*—Common Avens, or Herb Bennet *(Geum Virg.)*—Water Avens, or Throat Root *(Geum rivale)*—Blood Root, or Puccoon *(Sanguinario canadensis)*—Celandine *(Chelidonium majus)*—Yellow Water Lily *(Nymphœa lutea)*—Pond Lily *(Nymphœa alba)*—Golden Thread, or Mouth Root *(Nigella?)*—Liverwort *(Anemone hepatica)*—Crowsfoot *(Ranunculus Pennsylv.)*—Germander *(Teucrum Virg.)*—Catmint, or Catnip *(Nepeta cataria)*—Head Betony *(Betonica officinalis)*—Horsemint, Spearmint, Watermint, and Penniroyal *(Mentha spicata, viridis, aquatica, et pulegium)*—Ground Ivy, or Gill go over the ground *(Glecoma hederacea)*—Hedge Nettle *(Stachys sylvatica)*—Horehound *(Marrubium vulgare)*—Motherwort *(Leonorus cardiaca)*—Wild Marjorum *(Origanum vulgare)*—Wild Lavendar *(Trichostema?)*—Wood]

[Betony (*Pidicularis canadensis*) — Shepherd's Purse, or Pouch (*Thlapspi bursa pastoris*)—Water Cresses (*Sisymbrium nasturtium*) — Cranesbill (*Geranium macrorhizum*)—Marsh Mallow (*Althœa officin.*)—Mallow (*Malva rotundifolia*)—Succory (*Crepis barbata*) — Burdock (*Actium lappa*)—Devil's Bit (*Serratula amara*)—The root resembles the European Devil's Bit (*Scabivsa succisa*) from which circumstance the English name has probably been applied to this plant.—Tansey (*Tanacetum vulgare*)—Wormwood (*Artemisia absinthiani*)—Life Everlasting (*Gnaphalium odoratissimum?*)—Coltsfoot (*Tussilago farfara*)—Golden Rod (*Solidago canad.*)—Elecampane (*Inula helenium*) — Mayweed (*Anthemis cotula*)—Yarrow (*Achillea millefolia*)—American Pride (*Lobelia cardinalis*) Three other species of Lobelia (*Lobelia dortmanna, kalmii, et sphilitica*)—Dragon Root (*Arum Virg.*)—Stinging Nettle (*Urtica urens*)—White Walnut, Butter Nut, or Oil Nut (*Juglans cathartica*)—Swamp Willow (*Salix cinerea?*)—Sweet Gale (*Myrica gale*)—White Hellebore, or Pokeroot (*Veratrum album*)—Moonwort (*Osmunda lunaria*)—Female Fern (*Pteris caudata*)—Hearts Tongue (*Asplenium scolopendrium*)—Spleenwort (*Asplenium salicifolium*)—Black Maidenhair (*Asplenium adiantum.*) To the above we may add, Arsmart (*Polygonum Sagitatum. Linn.*)

Among a great variety of other medicinal plants in the southern and middle States are Pink Root, an excellent vermifuge—Senna (*Cassia ligustrina*) Clivers, or Goose-grass (*Galium spurium*)—Palma Christi (*Ricinus*) from which the castor oil is expressed—Several species of Mallow—Indian Physic (*Spiræa trifoliata*)—Euphorbial Ipecacuanhæ—Pleurisy Root (*Asclepias decumbens*)—Virginia Snake Root (*Aristolochta serpentaria*)—Black Snake Root (*Actæa racemosa*)—Seneca Rattlesnake Root (*Polygala Senega*)—Valerian (*Valeriana locusta radiata*)—Ginseng (*Panax quinquefolium*)—Angelica (*Angelica sylvestris*)—Cassava (*Jatropha urens.*)

Flowering Trees and Shrubs in the United States.

Globe Flower (*Cephalanthus occidentalis*)—Pigeonberry (*Cissus sicyoides*)—Virginian Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)—Conel (*Cornus canadensis*)—Red-flowered Honeysuckle (*Azalea nudiflora*)—White American Honeysuckle (*Azalea viscosa*)—American Tea (*Ceanothus americanus*)—Cherry Honeysuckle (*Lonicera diervilla*)—Virginia Scarlet Honeysuckle (*Lonicera virginiana*)—Dwarf Cherry Honeysuckle (*Lonicera canadensis*)—Evergreen Spindle Tree (*Euonymus sempervirens*)—Virginian Itea (*Itea virginica*)—Stag's-horn Sumach (*Rhus typhinum*)—Black Haw (*Viburnum prunifolium*)—Black-berried Elder (*Sambucus nigra*)—Red-berried Elder (*Sambucus canadensis*)—Scarlet-flowered Horse Chesnut (*Æsculus pavia*)—Judas Tree (*Cercis canadensis*)—Great Laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)—Dwarf Laurel (*Kalmia augustifolia*)—Thyme-leaved Marsh Cistus (*Ledum thymifolium*)—American Senna (*Rhodora canadensis*)—Rose Bay Tree (*Rhododendrum maximum*)—White Pepper Bush (*Andromeda arborea*)—Red-bud Andromeda (*Andromeda racemosa*)—Bog Evergreen (*Andromeda calyculata*)—Carolina Red-bud (*Andromeda nitida*)—Carolina Iron-wood Tree (*Andromeda plumata*)—Carolinian Syrianga (*Philadelphus inodorus*)—Sorbus Tree (*Sorbus aucuparia*)—Mountain Ash (*Sorbus americana*)—Service Tree (*Mespilus canadensis*)—Medlar Tree (*Mespilus nivea*)—Sweet-scented Crab-apple Tree (*Pyrus coronaria*)—Meadow Sweet (*Spiræa salicifolia*)—Queen of the Meadows (*Spiræa tomentosa*)—Canadian Spiræa (*Spiræa hypericifolia*)—Wild Rose (*Rosa carolina*)—Pennsylvanian Swamp Rose (*Rosa palustris*)—Superb Raspberry (*Rubus odoratus*)—Carolian Fothergilla (*Fothergilla gardeni*)—Tulip Tree (*Liriodendrum tulipifera*)—Evergreen Tulip Tree (*Magnolia grandiflora*)—Climbing Trumpet Flower (*Bignonia radicans*)—Virginian Stewartia (*Stewartia malacodendron*)—Franklin Tree (*Franklinia alatamaha*)—Locust Tree (*Robinia pseud acacia*)—Rose-flowered Locust Tree (*Robinia rosea*)—Swamp Willow (*Salix cineria?*)—Red-flowered Maple (*Acer rubrum.*)

Forest Trees.

Were we possessed of accurate materials for the purpose, it would far exceed the limits of a work embracing such a variety of subjects, to give a complete catalogue of the trees of this country. From the foregoing catalogues the reader must necessarily conclude that they are very numerous. And it ought to be observed, that almost all of them, for some purpose or other, have been used as timber. Some of the most useful species of trees, however, must not be omitted, and are the following: Elm (*Ulmus americana*) of this tree there is but one species, of which there are two varieties, the white and the red.—Wild Cherry; many species, highly valued for cabinet work.—Locust (*Robinia pseudo-acacia*) of quick growth, good for fuel, and excellent for posts to set in the ground, and trunnels for ships.—Birch; several

[species, 1. White *(Betula alba)* 2. Black *(Betula nigra)* 3. Red or Yellow *(Betula lenta)*—Oak; several species, 1. Black *(Quercus niger)* 2. Red *(Quercus rubra)* three varieties. 3. White *(Quercus alba)* 4. Shrub, or Ground Oak *(Quercus pumila)* 5. Chesnut Oak *(Quercus prinus)* 6. Live Oak *(Quercus sempervirens—Quercus Virginiana, Millar.)* 7. Black Jack Oak *(Quercus aquatica, Clayton.)* The two last are peculiar to the southern States.—Chesnut *(Fagus castanea)* chiefly used for fencing.—Beach *(Fagus sylvatica)* three varieties.—Pine *(Pinus)* seven species, 1. White *(Pinus strobus)* the prince of the American forests, in size, age, and majesty of appearance. It is found in the greatest abundance in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont—excellent for masts, bowsprits, and yards for ships.—2. Yellow *(Pinus pinea)* its plank and boards are used for the floors of houses and the decks of ships.—3. Black, or Pitch Pine *(Pinus tæda)* when burnt in kilns it makes the best of charcoal; its knots and roots being full of the terebinthine oil, when kindled, afford a brighter light than candles; its soot is collected and used for lampblack. It grows sparingly in New England and the middle States, but in the greatest plenty in the southern States, between the sea-coast and the mountains. From it they make tar in large quantities.—4. The Larch *(Pinus larix)* Its turpentine is said to be the same with the Burgundy pitch. Besides these, naturalists reckon the Fir *(Pinus balsamea)*—Spruce *(Pinus canadensis)*—Hemlock *(Pinus abies)*—Arbor Vitæ *(Thuya occidentalis)* the same as what is called White Cedar.—Juniper, or Red Cedar *(Juniperus virginica)* It produces the Juniper-berry.—White Cedar, of the southern States *(Cupressus thyoides)* different from the white cedar of the northern States.—Cypress *(Cupressus disticha)* Found only in the southern States; used for shingles and other purposes; grows in swamps very large.—White Willow *(Salix alba)* the bark of its root is an excellent substitute for the Peruvian bark.—Ash *(Fraxinus americana)* two species, Black, or Swamp Ash, and White Ash.—Maple, three species; 1. White *(Acer negundo)* much used in cabinet work—2. Red *(Acer rubrum)*—3. Black Rock, or Sugar Maple *(Acer saccharinum)* Its sap has a saccharine quality; and, when refined and hardened by boiling and baking, makes a well-tasted and wholesome sugar, the manufacture of which has greatly increased in the eastern and middle States, within a few years past.

There is in the United States an infinitude of trees of less note, and many, probably, equally noticeable with those enumerated, for a catalogue and descriptions of which we must refer the reader to Catesby's Natural History—Dr. Clayton's Flora Virginica—Mr. Jefferson's Notes on Virginia—Mr. Bartram's Travels through N. and S. Carolina, &c.—Dr. Cutler's Paper in the Memoirs of the American Academy—and Dr. Belknap's History of New Hampshire, Vol. III.

Exotic Fruits.

Of these, apples are the most common in the United States. They grow in the greatest plenty and variety in the eastern and middle States; and the cyder, which is expressed from them, affords the most common and wholesome liquor that is drank by the inhabitants. The Crab Apple *(Pyrus coronaria)* though not an exotic, on account of its being a genuine but distinct species of the apple, ought to be mentioned in this connection. It grows in all parts of N. America, which have been explored, from the Atlantic as far w. as the Mississippi. Its blossoms are remarkably fragrant; its fruit small, possessing, perhaps, of all vegetables, the keenest acid. The cyder made of this fruit is admired by connoisseurs: it makes excellent vinegar. The European Crab Apple is very different from ours. The other exotic fruits are pears, peaches, quinces, mulberries, plums, cherries, currants, barberries, of all which, except quinces and barberries, we have many species and varieties. These, with a few apricots and nectarines, flourish in the eastern States, and are in perfection in the middle States.

The exotic fruits of the southern States, besides those already mentioned, are figs, oranges, and lemons.

Pulse and Hortuline Plants and Roots.

Besides those transplanted from Europe to America, of which we have all the various kinds that Europe produces, the following are natives of this country, Potatoes *(Solanum tuberosum)*—Ground Nuts, a sort of potatoe, probably a species, highly relished by some people—Tobacco *(Nicotiana)*—Pumpkins *(Cucurbita pepo)*—Cymlings *(Cucurbita verrucosa)*—Squashes *(Cucurbita melopepo)*—Cantelope melons, beans, peas, hops. Probably others.

Animals.

The territory of the United States contains about one-fourth of the quadrupeds of the known world. Some of them are common to N. Ame-]

[rica, and to the European and Asiatic parts of the Eastern Continent; others are peculiar to the country of which we treat. All those that are common to both continents, are found in the *n.* parts of them. Comparing individuals of the same species, inhabiting the different continents, some are perfectly similar; between others, there is some difference in size, colour, or other circumstances; in some few instances the European animal is larger than the American; in others, the reverse is true. A similar variety, arising from the temperature of the climate, quantity of food furnished in the parts they inhabit, degree of safety, &c. takes place between individuals of the same species, in different parts of this continent. Animals in America which have been hunted for their flesh or fur, such as the moose, deer, beaver, &c. have become less in size since the arrival of the Europeans.

But our information on this subject is not sufficient to authorize many observations. It is very probable that some of the quadrupeds are utterly unknown; others are known only by common report, from hunters and others, and therefore could not be scientifically described; and, with respect to many others, the multiplying and misapplying names has produced great uncertainty and confusion.

The Rev. Dr. Cutler has given us the following catalogue of animals, with their Linnæan names annexed:

Seal	Phoca vitulina.
Wolf	Canis lupus.
Red Fox	Canis alopex?
Grey Fox	Canis.
Wild Cat	Felis lynx.
Skunk	Viverra putorius.
Otter	Mustella lutra?
Martin	Mustela.——
Weasel	Mustela martes?
Ermine	Mustela erminea.
Bear	Ursus arctos.
Racoon	Ursus lotor.
Wolverine	Ursus luscus.
Wood Chuck	(Ursi vel mustelæ species.)
Mole	Tolpa europea.
Shrew Mouse	Sorex cristatus.
Ground ditto	Sorex murinus.
Field ditto	Sorex araneus.
Porcupine	Hystrix dorsata.
Hare	Lepus timidus?
Rabbit	Lepus cuniculus.
Beaver	Castor fiber.
Musquash	Castor zibethecus.
Mink	———
Black Rat	Mus——
Black Squirrel	Sciurus niger.
Grey ditto	Sciurus cinereus.
Red ditto	Sciurus flavus.
Striped ditto	Sciurus striatus.
Flying ditto	Sciurus volans.
Moose	Cervus tarandus.
Deer	Cervus dama.

Mamillary biped

Bat	Vespertilio murinus.

The following is a catalogue of the quadruped animals within the United States. A description of them will be found, under their proper heads, in the Appendix to this Dictionary. Those to which an asterism * is prefixed, are fur animals; whose skins are sometimes dressed in allum, with the hair on, and worn in dress, or whose fur or soft hair is used for various manufactural purposes.

Mammouth
Hippotamus
* Bison
* Moose
* Margay
* Kincajou
* Weasel
* Ermine
* Martin
* Mink
* Otter
* Fisher
* Skrunk
* Caribou
* Red Deer
* Fallow Deer
* Roe
* Opossum
* Woodchuck
Urchin
* Hare
* Racoon
* Fox Squirrel
* Grey Squirrel
* Red Squirrel
* Striped Squirrel
* Bear
* Wolverene
* Wolf
* Fox
* Flying Squirrel
Bat
* Field Mouse
* Wood Rat
* Shrew Mouse
* Purple Mole
* Black Mole
* Water Rat
* Beaver
* Catamount
* Cougar
* Mountain Cat
* Lynx
* Musquash
* Morse
* Seal
Maniti
Sapajou
Sagoin

Birds.

Several catalogues of the birds in the Southern and Middle States have been published by different authors; and one of those in New Hampshire, by Dr. Belknap; but no general catalogue of the birds in the American States has yet appeared. The following Catalogue, which claims to be the most full and complete of any yet pub-]

[lished, though far from perfection, has been carefully selected from *Bartram's Travels*, *Jefferson's Notes on Virginia*, *Belknap's History of New Hampshire*, and a Manuscript furnished by Dr. Cutler. *Bartram's Catalogue*, as far as it extends, appears to be the most accurate and complete, and his mode of arrangement the most natural and intelligible: We have therefore adopted it, and inserted his notes and references.

The birds to whose names in this Catalogue, these marks (* † ‡ ‖ ¶) are prefixed, are land birds, which, according to Bartram, are seen in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, N. and S. Carolina, Georgia and Florida, from the sea-coast *w.* to the Appalachian Mountains, viz.

(*) These arrive in Pennsylvania in the spring, from the *s.*, and after building their nests and rearing their young, return *s.* in autumn.

(†) These arrive in Pennsylvania in autumn, from the *n.* where some of them continue during the winter, others continue their journey as far *s.* as Florida. They return *n.* in the spring, probably to breed and rear their young.

(‡) These arrive in the spring, in Carolina and Florida, from the *s.*; breed and rear their young, and return again to the *s.* at the approach of winter. These never migrate so far *n.* as Pennsylvania.

(‖) These are natives of Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; where they breed and continue the year round.

(¶) These breed and continue the year round in Pennsylvania.

(§) These are found in New England.

** Kite hawks are characterised by having long sharp-pointed wings; being of swift flight; sailing without flapping their wings; having long light bodies, and feeding out of their claws on the wing.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
The Owl.	**Strix.**
† Great White Owl	Strix arcticus, corpore toto niveo.
¶ Great Horned Owl	Strix pythaules, corpore ruso.
† Great Horned White Owl	Strix maximus, corpore niveo.
§ Horned Owl	Strix bubo? Peck.
¶ Whooting Owl	Strix acclamator, corpore griseo.
† Sharp Winged or Speckled Owl	Strix perigrinator, corpore versicolore. Strix aluco. Cutler. Belknap.
¶ Little Screech Owl	Strix asio, corpore ferruginio.
§ Barn Owl	Strix passeri. Cutler. Belknap.
The Vulture.	**Vultur.**
‖ Turkey Buzzard	Vultur aura.
‖ White Tailed Vulture	Vultur sacra.
‖ Black Vulture, or Carrion Crow	Vultur atratus.
Eagle and Hawk.	**Falco.**
¶ Great Grey Eagle	Falco regalis.
¶ Bald Eagle	Falco leucocephalus.
* Fishing Eagle	Falco piscatorius.
¶ Great Eagle Hawk	Falco Aquilinus, cauda ferruginio.
¶ Hen Hawk	Falco gallinarius.
¶ Chicken Hawk	Falco pularius.
* Pigeon Hawk	Falco columbarius.
¶ Black Hawk	Falco niger.
* Marsh Hawk	Falco ranivorus.
* Sparrow Hawk, or least Hawk	Falco sparvenius.
§ Brown Eagle	Falco fulvus. Belknap.
§ Large Brown Hawk	Falco hudsonius? Belknap.
§ Pigeon Hawk	Falco subbuteo. Peck.
§ Fish Hawk	Falco haliætus. Peck.
§ Bird Hawk	Lanius Canadensis. Belknap. Cutler.]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
Kite Hawk.**	Milvus.
[‖ Forked Tail Hawk, or Kite	Falco furcatus.
‖ Sharped Winged Hawk, of a pale, sky-blue colour, the tip of the wings black	Falco glaucus.
‖ Sharp Winged Hawk, of a dark or dusky blue colour	Falco subceruleus.
‖ Parrot of Carolina, or Parrakeet	Psitticus Caroliniensis.
The Crow kind.	Corvus.
* The Raven	Corvus carnivorus.
‖ Great Sea-side Crow, or Rook	Corvus maritimus.
¶ Common Crow	Corvus frugivorus.
§ Royston Crow	Corvus cornix. Cutler.
¶ Blue Jay	Corvus cristatus, pica glandaria.
‖ Little Jay of Florida	Corvus Floridanus, pica glandaria minor.
¶ Purple Jackdaw, or Crow Blackbird	Gracula quiscula.
* Lesser Purple Jackdaw	Gracula purpurea.
* Cuckow of Carolina	Cuculus Caroliniensis.
Whet Saw	Cuculus—Carver.
Woodpeckers.	Picus.
‖ Greatest Crested Woodpecker, having a white back	Picus principalis.
* Great Red Crested, Black Woodpecker	Picus pileatus.
* Read Headed Woodpecker	Picus erythrocephalus.
* Gold Winged Woodpecker	Picus auratus.
¶ Red Bellied Woodpecker	Picus Carolinus.
¶ Least Spotted Woodpecker	Picus pubescens.
¶ Hairy, Speckled and Crested Woodpecker	Picus villosus.
¶ Yellow Bellied Woodpecker	Picus varius.
§ Swallow Woodpecker	Picus hirundinaceus. Cutler.
§ Speckled Woodpecker	Picus maculosus. Cutler.
¶ Nuthatch	Sitta capite nigro. Catesby.
† Small Nuthatch	Sitta capite fusco. Catesby.
† Little Brown variegated Creeper	Certhia rufa.
* Pine Creeper	Certhia pinus.
* Blue and White, pied Creeper	Certhia picta.
* Great Crested King Fisher	Alcedo alcyon.
* Humming Bird	Trochylus colubris.
* Little Grey Butcher Bird of Pennsylvania	Lanius griseus.
* Little Black Capped Butcher	Lanius garrulus.
* King Bird	Lanius tyrannus.
* Pewit, or Black Cap Fly Catcher	Muscicapa nunciola.
* Great Crested Yellow Bellied Fly Catcher	Muscicapa cristata.
* Lesser Pewit, or Brown and Greenish Fly Catcher	Muscicapa rapax.
* Little Olive-coloured Fly Catcher	Muscicapa subviridis.
* Little Domestic Fly Catcher, or Green Wren	Muscicapa cantacrix.
* Red-eyed Fly Catcher	Muscicapa sylvicola.
* Turtle Dove of Carolina	Columba Caroliniensis.
‖ Ground Dove	Columba passerina.
† Wild Pigeon	Columba migratoria.
* Great Meadow Lark	Alauda magna.
† Sky Lark	Alauda campestris, gutture flavo.]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
[† Little Brown Lark	Alauda migratoria, corpore toto ferruginio.
Red-winged Starling—Marsh Black Bird, or Red-winged Black Bird	Sturnus niger alis superne rubentibus. Catesby.
¶ Robin Red Breast. Field Fare	Turdus migratorius.
* Fox-coloured Thrush	Turdus rufus.
* Mocking Bird	Turdus polyglottos.
* Wood Thrush	Turdus melodes.
* Least Golden Crown Thrush	Turdus minimus, vertice aurio.
§ Cross Bill	Loxia curvi rostra? Belknap.
§ Cherry Bird	Ampelis garrulus. Cutler.
* Baltimore Bird, or Hang Nest	Oriolus Baltimore.
* Goldfinch, or Icterus Minor	Oriolus spurius.
* Sand Hill Red Bird of Carolina	Merula flammula.
* Summer Red Bird	Merula Marilandica.
* Yellow-breasted Chat	Garrulus australis.
* Cat Bird, or Chicken Bird	Lucar lividus, apice nigra. Muscicapa vertice nigro. Catesby.
¶ Crown Bird, or Cedar Bird	Ampelis garrulus.

GRANIVOROUS TRIBES.

¶ Wild Turkey	Meleagris Americanus. Gallopavo sylvestris. Catesby.
¶ Pheasant of Pennsylvania, or Partridge of New England	Tetrao tympanus.
¶ Mountain Cock, or Grous Ptarmigan. (*Mitchill.*)	Tetrao lagopus.
¶ Quail, or Partridge	Tetrao minor, s. coturnix.
¶ Red Bird—Virginia Nightingale.	Loxia cardinalis.
† Cross Beak	Loxia rostro forsicato.
* Blue Cross Beak	Loxia cærulea.
* Rice Bird—Boblincoln	Emberiza oryzivora.
‡ Blue or Slate-coloured Rice Bird	Emberiza livida.
* Pied Rice Bird	Emberiza varia.
‡ Painted Finch, or Nonpareil	Linaria ciris.
§ Red Linnet	Tanagra rubra.
* Blue Linnet	Linaria cyanea.
¶ Goldfinch. Yellow Bird (*Cutler.*) or Lettuce Bird	Carduelus Americanus. Fringilla tristis. Linn.
† Lesser Goldfinch	Carduelus pinus.
† Least Finch	Carduelus pusilus.
* Towhe Bird, Pewee, Cheeweeh	Fringilla erythrophthalma. Passer nigris oculis rubris. Catesby.
† Purple Finch	Fringilla purpurea.
§ Spring Bird	Fringilla. Cutler.
† Hemp Bird	Fringilla canabina.
§ Winter Sparrow	Fringilla grisea. Cutler.
† Red, Fox-coloured, Ground or Hedge Sparrow	Fringilla rufa.
† Large, Brown, White-throated Sparrow	Fringilla fusca.
* Little House Sparrow, or Chipping Bird	Passer domesticus.
* Reed Sparrow	Passer palustris.
* Little Field Sparrow	Passer agrestis.
† Snow Bird	Passer nivalis.
* May Bird	Calandra pratensis.]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
[* Red-winged Starling, or Corn Thief	Sturnus predatorius.
* Cowpen Bird	Sturnus stercorarius. Passer fuscus. Catesby.
* Blue Bird	Motacilla sialis. Rubicula Americana cærulea. Catesby.
* Water Wagtail	Motacilla fluviatilis.
* House Wren	Motacilla domestica (regulus rufus).
¶ * Marsh Wren	Motacilla palustris (regulus minor.)
* Great Wren of Carolina; body dark brown, throat and breast pale clay colour	Motacilla Caroliniana (regulus magnus.)
§ Grape Bird	Motacilla icterocephala. Cutler.
* Little Bluish Grey Wren	Regulus griseus.
* Golden Crown Wren	Regulus cristatus.
† Ruby Crown Wren (*Edwards*)	Regulus cristatus, Alter vertice rubini coloris.
* Olive-coloured, Yellow-throated Wren	Regulus peregrinus, gutture flavo.
* Red Start	Ruticilla Americana.
* Yellow-hooded Titmouse	Luscinia, s. philomela Americana.
* Bluish Grey-crested Titmouse	Parus cristatus.
¶ Black Cap Titmouse	Parus Europeus.
* Summer Yellow Bird	Parus luteus.
* Yellow Rump	Parus cedrus, uropygio flavo.
§ Tom Teet	Parus atricapillus. Cutler.
* Various coloured Little Finch Creeper	Parus varius.
* Little Chocolate-breast Titmouse	Parus peregrinus.
* Yellow Red Poll	Parus aureus, vertice rubro.
* Green Black-throated Fly Catcher	Parus viridis, gutture nigro.
* Golden-winged Fly Catcher	Parus alis aureis.
* Blue-winged Yellow Bird	Parus aureus alis cæruleis.
* Yellow-throated Creeper	Parus griccus gutture luteo.
* House Swallow, or Chimney Swallow	Hirundo pelasgia, cauda aculeata.
* Great Purple Martin	Hirundo purpurea.
* Bank Martin, or Swallow	Hirundo riparia, vertice purpurea.
§ White-bellied Martin	Hirundo.—
§ Barn Swallow	Hirundo subis. Cutler.
‡ Great Bat, or Chuckwills Widow, or Goat Sucker	Caprimulgus lucifugus.
* Whip-poor-will	Caprimulgus minor Americanus. Catesby. Caprimulgus Europeus. Cutler.
* Night Hawk	Caprimulgus Americanus. Cutler.

AMPHIBIOUS *or* AQUATIC BIRDS, *or such as obtain their food from and reside in the water.*

The Crane.	Grus.
‖ Great Whooping Crane	Grus clamator, vertice papilloso corpore niveo, remigibus nigris.
‡ Great Savanna Crane	Grus pratensis, corpore cinereo, vertice papilloso.

The Heron.	Ardea.
¶ Great Bluish Grey-crested Heron	Ardea Herodias.
* Great White River Heron	Ardea immaculata.
§ Crane	Ardea Canadensis. Cutler.
* Little White Heron	Ardea alba minor.
§ Stork	Ardea ciconia. Cutler.
‡ Little-crested Purple, or Blue Heron	Ardea purpurea cristata.]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
[* Grey, White-crested, Heron	Ardea varra cristata.
‡ Speckled-crested Heron, or Crab Catcher	Ardea maculata cristata.
* Marsh Bittern, or Indian Hen	Ardea migitans. Ardea stellaris Americana. Catesby.
* Quaw Bird, or Frog Catcher	Ardea clamator, corpore subceruleo.
‡ Little Brownish spotted Bittern	Ardea subfusca stillata.
‡ Crested Blue Bittern, called Poor Job	Ardea violacca.
* Green Bittern. Poke. Skouk.	Ardea virescens.
* Lesser Green Bittern	Ardea virescens minor.
* Least Brown and Striped Bittern	Ardea parva.
* Spoon Bill; seen as far *n.* as the river Alatamaha	Patalea ajaja.

The Wood Pelican.	Tantalus.
‡ Wood Pelican	Tantalus loculator.
‡ White Curlew	Tantalus alber.
‡ Dusky and White Curlew	Tantalus fuscus.
‖ Crying Bird, beautifully speckled	Tantalus pictus, (Ephouskyka. Indian.)
‖ Ganet, perhaps little different from the Ibis	Tantalus Ichthyophagus.
‖ White Godwit	Numenius, alba varia.
¶ Great red-breasted Godwit	Numenius pectore ruso.
¶ The greater Godwit	Numenius Americana.
¶ Red Shark, or Pool Stripe	Numenius fluvialis.
¶ Great Sea-coast Curlew	Numenius magnus rufus.
* Lesser Field Curlew	Numenius minor campestris.
¶ Sea-side lesser Curlew	Numenius cinereus.
* Great Red Woodcock	Scolapax Americana rufa.
Wood Snipe	Scolapax fedoa. Cutler.
* Meadow Snipe	Scolapax minor arvensis.
* Red coot-footed Tring	Tringa rufa.
* White-throated, Coot-footed Tring	Tringa cinerea, gutture albo.
* Black Cap, Coot-footed Tring	Tringa vertice nigro.
¶ Spotted Tring. Rock bird	Tringa maculata.
¶ Little Pond Snipe	Tringa griseus.
¶ Little Brown Pool Snipe	Tringa fusca.
¶ Little Trings of the sea-shore Sand birds,	Tringa parva.
Ox Eye	Tringa fulicaria? Cutler.
§ Humility	Tringa interpres? Cutler.
* Turnstone, or Dotrill	Morinella Americana.
† Wild Swan	Cygnus ferus.
† Canadian Goose	Anser Canadensis.
† Blue-winged Goose	Anser aleis cæruleis.
† Laughing Goose	Anser fuscus maculatus
† White Brant Goose	Anser branta, corpore albo, remigibus nigris.
† Great party-coloured Brant, or Grey Goose,	Anser branta, grisea maculata.
† Great Wild Duck. Duck and Mallard	Anas fera torquata major, caput et collum viridii splendentis, dorsum griseo fuscum, pectore rufescente, speculum violacrum.
† Great Black Duck	Anas nigra maxima.
† Bull Neck, or Buffalo Head Quindar	Acas bucepala.
† Blue Bill	Anas subcerulea.
† Black White-faced Duck	Anas leucocephala.
§ Wood Duck	Anas arborea.
† Sprig-tail Duck	Anas caudacuta.]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
[† Little Brown and White Duck	Anas rustica.
† Various coloured Duck, his breast and neck as though ornamented with chains of beads	Anas principalis, maculata.
† Little Black and White Duck, called Butter Back	Anas minor picta.
Sea Duck	Anas mollissima. Cutler.
Sea Pigeon	Anas histrionica? Cutler.
§ Old Wife	Anas Hyemalis. Peck. Anas strepera? Cutler.
† Blue-winged Shoveller	Anas Americanus lato rostro. Catesby.
§ Dipper	Anas albeola. Cutler.

Teal.	Querquidulæ.
* Summer Duck	Anas sponsa.
† Blue-winged Teal	Anas discors.
† Least Green-winged Teal	Anas migatoria.
* Whistling Duck	Anas fistulosa.
† Great Fishing Duck	Mergus major pectore rufo.
† Round-crested Duck	Mergus cucultatus.
* Eel Crow	Colymbus migratorius.
‖ Great Black Cormorant of Florida, having a red beak	Colymbus Floridanus.
‖ Snake Bird of Florida	Colymbus colubrinus, cauda elongata.
¶ Great Black and White Pied Diver, or Loon	Colymbus musicus.
† Large Spotted Loon, or Great Speckled Diver	Colymbus Glacialis. Peck. Colymbus arcticus.
¶ Little-eared Brown Dobchick	Colymbus auritus et cornutus.
¶ Little-crested Brown Dobchick	Colymbus minor fuscus.
§ Dobchick, or Notail	Colymbus podiceps. Peck.
§ Cream-coloured Sheldrake	Mergus merganser? Cutler.
§ Red-bellied Sheldrake	Mergus serrator? Cutler.
§ Pyed Sheldrake	Mergus castor? Cutler.
§ Penguin	Alea impennis. Cutler.
§ Water Hen	Alea arctica? Cutler.
§ Murr	Alea torda. Peck.
§ Petteril	Procellaria pelagica. Peck.
‡ Tropic Bird	Phæton ætherius.
¶ Great White Gull	Larus alber.
¶ Great Grey Gull	Larus griseus.
¶ Little White River Gull	Larus alba minor.
§ Mackarel Gull	Larus ridibundus. Cutler.
§ Fishing Gull	Sterna minuta. Cutler.
‡ Sea Swallow, or Noddy	Sterna stolida.
§ Sea Sucker	Petromyzon marinus. Peck.
‖ Pintado Bird	Petrella pintado.
§ Thornback	Raja fullonica? Peck.
¶ Shear Water, or Razor Bill	Rynchops niger.
‡ Frigate, or Man of War Bird	Pelicanus aquilus.
‡ Booby	Pelicanus sula.
§ Shag	Pelicanus graculus. Cutler.
Pelican of the Mississippi, whose pouch holds two or three quarts	Pelicanus.—
‖ American Sea Pelican	Onocratalus Americanus.]

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Designation.*
The Plover Kind.	Charadrius.
* Kildee, or Chattering Plover	Charadrius vociferus.
* Great Spotted Plover	Charadrius maculatus.
* Little Sea-side Ring-neck Plover	Charadrius minor.
* Will Willet, or Oyster Catcher	Hematopus ostrealegus.
‖ Great Blue, or Slate-coloured Coot	Fulica Floridana.
§ White-head Coot	Anas spectabilis. Cutler.
§ Brown Coot	Anas fusca. Cutler.
* Soree. Brown Rail. Widgeon	Rallus Virginianus.
‡ Little dark Blue Water Rail	Rallus aquaticus minor.
* Greater Brown Rail	Rallus rufus.
‖ Blue or Slate-coloured Water Rail of Florida	Rallus major subceruleus.
§ Peep	Rallus Carolinus. Cutler.
* Flamingo; seen about the point of Florida; rarely as far *n.* as St. Augustine	Phœnicopterus ruber.

Besides these, the following have not been described or classed, unless, under different names, they are contained in the above catalogue.

Sheldrach, or Canvas Back	Mow Bird
Ball Coot	Blue Peter
Water Witch	Water Wagtail
Water Pheasant	Wakon Bird.

The birds of America, says Catesby, generally exceed those of Europe in the beauty of their plumage, but are much inferior to them in the melody of their notes.

The middle States, including Virginia, appear to be the climates, in N. America, where the greatest number and variety of birds of passage celebrate their nuptials and rear their offspring, with which they annually return to more *s.* regions. Most of the birds here are birds of passage from the *s.* The eagle, the pheasant, grous, and partridge of Pennsylvania, several species of woodpeckers, the crow, blue jay, robin, marsh wren, several species of sparrows or snow birds, and the swallow, are perhaps nearly all the land birds that continue the year round to the *n.* of Virginia.

Very few tribes of birds build or rear their young in the *s.* or maritime parts of Virginia, in Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; yet all those numerous tribes, particularly of the soft-billed kind, which breed in Pennsylvania, pass, in the spring season, through these regions in a few weeks time, making but very short stages by the way; and again, but few of them winter there on their return *s.*

It is not known how far to the *s.* they continue their rout, during their absence from the northern and middle States.

Amphibious Reptiles.

Among these are the Mud Tortoise, or Turtle *(Testudo denticulata)*—Speckled Land Tortoise *(Testudo Carolina.)*—Great Soft-shelled Tortoise of Florida *(Testudo naso cylindracea elongato, truncato. Bartram.)* When full grown it weighs from 30 to 40 pounds, extremely fat and delicious food.—Great Land Tortoise, called Gopher, its upper shell is about 18 inches long, and from 10 to 12 broad: found *s.* of Savanna River.

Two species of fresh water tortoises inhabit the tide water rivers in the Southern States, one is large, weighing from 10 to 12 pounds; the back shell nearly of an oval form; the other species small; but both are esteemed delicious food.

Of the frog kind *(Ranœa)* are many species. The Toad *(Rana buso?)* several species, the red, brown, and black. The former are the largest; the latter the smallest.—Pond Frog *(Rana ocellata)*—Green Fountain Frog *(Rana esculanta)*—Tree Frog *(Rana muculata)*—Bull Frog *(Rana boans.)* Besides these are the dusky brown-spotted frog of Carolina, eight or nine inches long from the nose to the extremity of the toes; their voice resembles the grunting of a swine. The bell frog, so called because their voice is fancied to be exactly like that of a loud cow bell. A beautiful green frog, whose noise is like the barking of little dogs, or the yelping of puppies. A less green frog, whose notes resemble those of young chickens. Little grey-speckled frog, which makes a noise like the striking of two pebbles together under the surface of the water. There is yet an extremely diminutive species of frogs, called by some Savannah Crickets, whose notes are not unlike the chattering of young birds]

[or crickets. They are found in great multitudes after plentiful rains. Of lizards also there are many species. See article LACERTÆ, in the General Appendix to this Dictionary.

Amphibious Serpents.

The characters by which amphibious serpents are distinguished are these, the belly is furnished with scuta, and the tail has both scuta and scales. Of these reptiles, the following are found in the United States: they are specifically described in the Appendix to this Dictionary. See article COLUBER.

Rattle Snake	Crotalus horridus.
Yellow Rattle Snake	Crotali species.
Small Rattle Snake	
Bastard Rattle Snake	
Moccasin Snake	Coluber.—
Grey-spotted Moccasin Snake of Carolina	
Water Viper, with a sharp thorn tail	Coluber punctatus.
Black Viper	Coluber prester.
Brown Viper	Coluber luridus.
White-bodied, Brown-eyed Snake	Coluber atropos.
Black Snake, with linear rings	Coluber leberis.
A Snake with 152 scutæ and 135 scutellæ	Coluber dispas.
Bluish-green Snake, with a stretched-out triangular snout, or Hognose Snake	Coluber mycterizans.
Copper-bellied Snake	Coluber erythrogaster.
Black Snake	Coluber constrictor.
White-neck Black Snake	Coluber.—
Small Brown Adder	Coluber striatulus.
House Adder	Coluber punctatis.
Water Adder	Coluber.—
Brown Snake	Coluber sipedon.
Little Brown-bead Snake	Coluber annulatus.
Coach-whip Snake	Coluber flagellum.
Corn Snake	Coluber fulvius.
Green Snake	Coluber æstivus.
Wampum Snake	Coluber fasciatus.
Ribbon Snake	
Pine, Horn, or Bull Snake, with a horny spear in his tail	
Joint Snake	
Garter Snake	
Striped Snake	Anguis eryx?
Chicken Snake	Anguis maculata?
Glass Snake	Anguis ventralis.
Brownish-spotted Snake	Anguis reticulata.
Yellowish-white Snake	Anguis lumbricalis.
Hissing Snake	
Ring Snake	
Two-headed Snake	

Fishes.

Fishes form the fourth class of animals in the Linnæan system. Mr. Pennant, in his British Zoology, distributes fish into three divisions, comprehending six orders. His divisions are, into Cetaceous, Cartilaginous, and Bony. The arrangement of the following catalogue of fishes is nearly agreeable with Mr. Pennant's judicious divisions:]

[Cetaceous Fish.

The Whale (BALÆNA. See Appendix.)
Dolphin Porpesse Grampus
Beluga. (See Appendix.)

Cartilaginous Fish.

Lamprey
Skate
Shark
Dog-fish
Sturgeon
Brown-spotted Gar
Fish
Lump Fish
Pipe Fish
Golden Bream, or Sun Fish
Red-bellied Bream
Silver, or White Bream
Yellow Bream
Black, or Blue Bream.

Bony Fish.

Eel
Snake Fish
Haddock
Cod
Frost Fish
Pollock
Small Pollock
Hake
Sculpion
Plaice
Flounder
Hollybut
Dab
Red Perch
White Perch
Yellow Perch
Sea Perch
Whiting
Sea Bass
Striped Bass
Shiner
Chub
Stickleback
Conger Eel
Skipjack
Pout
Horse Mackarel
Blue Mackarel
Speckled Mackarel
Salmon
Salmon Trout
Trout
Smelt
Pike, or Pickerel
Atherine
Mullet
Herring
Carp
Pond Fish
Toad Fish
Roach
Shad
Hardhead
Alewife
Bret
Sucker
Cat Fish
Minow
Week Fish
King Fish
Sole
Mummychog
White Fish
Tide Black Fish
Rock Black Fish
Blue Fish (Begallo)
Sheep's Head
Red Drum
Black Drum
Branded Drum
Sheep's-head Drum
Mossbonker
Shadine
Porsie
Dace
Anchovy
Flying Fish.

The amphibious lobster is found in the small brooks and swamps in the back parts of N. Carolina. In its head is found the eye-stone.

Insects.

The following catalogues of insects and *vermes*, except some small additions and the annexed descriptions, are taken from Dr. Belknap's History of New Hampshire, vol. iii. p. 180—183.

Horned Beetle	Scarabæus simson.
Carolina Beetle	Scarabæus Carolinus.
Dunghill Beetle	Scarabæus stercorarius.
Apple Beetle	Scarabæus horticola?
Golden Beetle	Scarabæus lanigerus.—Several new species, and others that have not been arranged.
Stag Beetle	Lucanus cervus.
Fluted Beetle	Lucanus interruptus.
	Dermestes lardarius.
	Dermestes typographus.
Water Flea	Gyrinus natator.
Fetid Beetle	Silpha vespillo.
Lady Fly	Coccinella 2—pustulata.—Several species.
	Chrysomela.—Many species.
Wheat Fly	
Weevil	Bruchus pisi.
Snouted Weevil	Curculio quercus.—Many species.
Goat Chaffer	Cerambyx coriarius.—Many species.
Fire Fly	Lampyris lucida.—Several species.
Skipper	Elater oculatus.—Many species.
Glow-worm	Cicindela Carolina.—One or two other species.
Cantharides	Buprestris mariana.—Two or three other species.
Water Beetle	Dytiscus piceus.]

	Dytiscus marginalis.
	Dytiscus striatus.—Several other species.
[Black Beetle	Carabus Americanus.—Numerous species.
Blossom Eater	Meloe nigra.
	Staphylinus maxillosus.
	Forsicula.—Two species.
Cockroach	Blatta Americana, (non indigenus.)
Grasshopper, Cricket, Locust	Grillus.—Numerous species.
Mole Cricket	Grillus gryllotalpa.
Froghopper, Balm Cricket	Cicada.—Many species.
Large and Small Water Fly, Boat Fly	Notanecta.—Several species.
Bug	Cinex.—Numerous species.
Louse, on cabbages	Aphis brassicæ.
Louse, on leaves of trees and plants	Aphis.—Numerous species.
Bug, on plants and trees	Chermes.—Many species.
Butterfly	Papilio. {Numerous species, and several non descripts.
Night Flutterer	Sphinx.
Owl Moth	Many new species.
Moth, or Miller	Palæna.—Numerous species.
Apple Moth, or Canker-worm	Phalæna wauaria?
Dragon Fly, Adder Fly	Libellula.—Several species.
	Hemerobius pectinicornis.—Several species.
Oak-apple Fly	Cynips.—Several species.
Saw Fly	Tenthredo betulæ.
Wasp, Hornet	Vespa.—Many species.
Bumble Bee, Wild Bee	Aspis.—Several species.
Ant	Formica.—Several species.
Black Fly, Brown Fly	Musca.—Numerous species
Horse Fly	Tabanus.—Several species.
Mosquito, or Musketoe	Culex pipiens.
Stinging Fly	Conops calcitrans.
Snow Flea	Podura nivalis.
Father Long Legs	Phalangium.—Several species.
Spider	Aranea.—Many species.
Crab, Lobster, Shrimp, Hermit Crab, Slender Crab	Cancer.—Many species.
King Crab, or Horse Shoe	Monoculus polyphemus.
	Monoculus piscinus.
Cray Fish	
Amphibious Lobster	
	Monoculus pulex.
	Monoculus quadricornis.]

Vermes.

[Sea Clam	Holothuria phantaphus.
Squid	Sepia media.
	Sepia loligo.
Sea Lungs	Medusa pilearis.
Star Fish, or Finger Fish	Asterias.—Three or four species.
Sea Egg	Echinus.—Several species.
Barnacle	Lepas anatifera.
Hog Clam	Mya arenaria.
Razor-shell Clam	Solen ensis.
Long-shell Clam	Solen radiatis.
Oyster	Ostrea ———.
Muscle	Mytilus edulis.
Cockle	Nerita littoralis?
Limpets	Patella fusca.
Sand-shell Clam	Sabella granulata.
Sea Anemone	Anemone marina (locomotiva.)

The Wheat Fly, commonly, but improperly called the Hessian Fly, which has, of late years, proved so destructive to the wheat in various parts of the United States, has generally been supposed to have been imported from Europe. This opinion, however, seems not to be well founded. Count Ginnanni, of Ravenna, in a late learned Treatise on the Diseases of Wheat in its growing State between Seed Time and Harvest, has given an account of more than 50 different insects that infest the Italian wheat, and yet the wheat fly found here is not delineated nor described. There is reason, therefore, to doubt its existence in the *s.* of Europe. Sir Joseph Banks said it did not exist in England; nor could he collect any account of it in Germany. This destructive insect is probably a non-descript, and peculiar to the United States. It is said to have no deleterious effect on the yellow-bearded wheat of that country.

The Ink or Cuttle Fish is a curiosity. It is furnished with a cyst of black liquor, which is a tolerable substitute for ink. This it emits, when pursued by its enemies. The moment this liquor is emitted, the water becomes like a thick black cloud in the eyes of its pursuer, and it improves this opportunity to make its escape. This cyst of liquor appears designed by Providence solely for the purpose of personal defence, and is certainly a most apt and curious contrivance. The whalemen call those fish Squids, and say that they are eaten in abundance by some species of whales.

Population and Territory.—It is well known that, about a century ago, the country which now composes the United States of America, contained but a few thousand civilized inhabitants; and that now, the same country contains upwards of seven millions.

But the causes of this vast increase of numbers seem not to be equally well understood. It is believed that many persons still suppose the population of America to be chiefly indebted for its growth to emigrations from other countries; and that it must become stationary when they cease to take place. Some facts and calculations will be here set down, to ascertain the ratio of the natural increase of the inhabitants of America, and to shew that the great progress of wealth and population in that country is chiefly derived from internal causes, and of course less liable to interruption from without.

The highest estimate that is recollected of the number of inhabitants removing to America in any one year, supposes the number to be 10,000 (Cooper's Inform.) If the same number had removed every year since the first settlement of the country, it would make the whole up to 1790 about 1,600,000. But it is to be remarked that this estimate was made for a period when emigrations were unusually numerous; that during the many years of war which have taken place, they have been very few; and that in former years, when the number of emigrants was complained of as an evil, it was not reckoned so high. (Douglas's Summary, vol. ii. p. 326.) We may therefore suppose, that 5,000 persons per annum is a liberal allowance for the average number of persons removing to America since its first settlement. This, in the year 1790, would amount to 800,000 persons.

At the end of 1790, and beginning of 1791,]

[there were enumerated in the General Census, the number of 3,993,412 inhabitants. As some places were not enumerated at all, and from others no return was made, there can be little doubt but the actual number then was something more than 4,000,000. Supposing them to have increased, so as to double their numbers once in 20 years; then, in the several preceding periods of 20 years, since the year 1630, the numbers would stand thus:

At the end of 1790	4,000,000
1770	2,000,000
1750	1,000,000
1730	500,000
1710	250,000
1690	125,000
1670	62,500
1650	31,250
1630	15,625

—but as this last date reaches back to the infancy of the first settlements in N. America, it can hardly be supposed that they contained so many as 15,000 inhabitants. It follows, therefore, that they must have doubled their numbers oftener than once in 20 years; that is, that they must have increased faster than 5 per cent. compounding the increase with the principal at the end of every 20 years.

To determine how far this ratio of increase is justified by other facts, a comparison of the number of inhabitants has been drawn from authentic resources for the following periods, according to which the total number appeared to have been in the year

1750	1,179,259
1774	2,141,307
1782	2,389,300
1790	4,000,000

From this it will be seen, that taking the difference between the number of 1790		4,000,000
and the number of 1782		2,389,300
Which is		1,610,700
And deducting from this, for emigrants, viz. 10,000, emigrants, per annum, for nine years	90,000	
Increase of ditto, at 5 per cent. for four years and a half	20,050	
		110,250
There has been a natural increase in nine years, of		1,500,450

Which, calculated upon the number of inhabitants returned in 1782, gives the astonishing natural increase of nearly seven per cent. per ann.

From these statements compared with each other, it also appears that in the year 1790, the actual increase of inhabitants in the United States, beyond the number ever imported, must have been 3,200,000, or after the most liberal allowances, at least three millions. That the whole rate of increase upon the numbers at any given period has been more than five per cent.; and deducting for emigrations, that it has been equal to about five per cent. for any 20 years successively, or three and a half per cent. compound increase for any period that had then yet elapsed.

But it may be expected, that no inference as to the future population of America can be derived from these facts, because as the country becomes more thickly settled, the increase will be slower. We have an opportunity of examining what weight the objection possesses.

The Eastern States are the most thickly inhabited. The greater part of the emigrations from them, have been either to other States in New England, or to the State of New York.

In 1750, New England and New York together contained - - 444,000
1790, Ditto - - - - - - - - 1,348,942

Having more than trebled their numbers in 40 years, and increased, during all that period, at the rate of more than five per cent. upon their original number; and in the compound ratio of nearly three per cent. And as many more persons have emigrated from these States than have come into them from abroad, all this, and something more, was their natural increase.

In 1750, Massachusetts contained 32 persons, and in
1790, about 60 persons to each square mile.
1750, Connecticut contained 20 persons, and in
1790, about 50 persons to the square mile.
1750, Rhode Island contained about 23, and in
1790, about 52 inhabitants per square mile;

so that besides the numerous emigrants these States have sent forth, they have more than doubled their numbers in 40 years, and nearly trebled them since they contained 20 persons to each square mile.

Mr. Jefferson has taken some pains to prove that the inhabitants of Virginia double their numbers once in 27 years and a quarter. He also proves, by an ingenious calculation, that]

[In 1782, the numbers in Virginia were 567,614
1790, the same country (part of which made the State of Kentucky) contained - - - 821,287

Giving an increase of $4\frac{96}{100}$, or very nearly five per cent. and doubling their numbers, not in 27 years and a quarter, as Mr. Jefferson endeavoured to prove, but in less than 21 years.

Virginia (exclusive of Kentucky) added about 180,000 to its numbers, between 1782 and 1790, the period when the numerous emigrations to Kentucky caused so great a drain upon its population.

In 1780, the number of militia, *w.* of Blue Ridge, in Virginia, was 11,440, which, multiplied by four, gives for the number of inhabitants - - - - - - 45,760
In 1790, the same county contained 151,235

Those counties having more than trebled their numbers in ten years.

It is to be observed that these facts (and many more of a similar tendency might be adduced) are drawn from the former and least prosperous state of America, and from periods which were either absolutely those of public calamity, or, at best, were not those of national prosperity; yet, it is apprehended, they sufficiently prove that the inhabitants of the United States had, up to the year 1796, increased at least as fast as at the compound ratio of three and a half per cent.; and this independently of any effect from the removal thither of foreigners. They must have contained, at this period, 8,000,000 of people to have equalled the average of New England, and 55,000,000 to have equalled the rate of population in Massachusetts and Connecticut.

There are as yet no symptoms of this ratio of increase being very materially diminished. The population, by the Census of 1810, amounted to 7,238,421, being not quite double of the Census of 1790. The quota returned at each period by the individual States, will afford matter of curious investigation to the more speculative enquirer, we therefore subjoin]

[*The CENSUS of the UNITED STATES of N. AMERICA for the Years* 1790 *and* 1810; *distinguishing the Population of each State, and the Increase experienced by each, within the Period of* 20 *Years.*

States.	Southern, Midland, Northern States, & Territorial Governments.	1790.	1810.	Increase in 20 Years.
Virginia	S.	747,610	965,079	217,469
New York	M.	340,120	959,220	619,100
Pennsylvania	M.	434,373	810,163	375,790
Massachusetts	N.	378,787	472,040	93,253
Maine	N.	96,540	228,705	132,165
N. Carolina	S.	393,751	563,526	169,775
S. Carolina	S.	249,073	414,935	165,862
Kentucky	S.	73,677	406,511	332,834
Maryland	S.	319,728	380,546	60,818
Connecticut	N.	237,946	261,942	23,996
Tenesse, West	S.	77,200	160,360	184,527
———, East	S.		101,367	
Georgia	S.	82,548	252,433	169,885
New Jersey	M.	184,139	245,562	61,423
Ohio	M.	29,165	230,760	201,595
Vermont	N.	85,539	217,913	132,374
New Hampshire	N.	141,885	214,414	72,529
Rhode Island	N.	68,825	76,931	8,106
Delaware	M.	59,094	72,674	13,580
TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS.				
Orleans	T.	- - -	76,556	
Mississippi	T.	- - -	40,352	
Indiana	T.	- - -	24,520	
Columbia	T.	- - -	24,023	
Louisiana	T.	- - -	20,845	
Illinois	T.	- - -	12,282	
Michigan	T.	- - -	4,762	203,340
Total - - - 24		4,000,000*	7,238,421	3,238,421

* Of whom about 700,000 were slaves. It should be observed, that the Importation of Africans ceased by law on the 1st of January, 1808.

In the year 1796 some very ingenious calculations were made, purporting to show that the whole territory of the United States, taken at an average of 1000 miles square, would be peopled about the year 1834, and that the population would then amount to 18,406,150 souls. It was also argued that the population of 1796 would, upon the data of its doubling once in 20 years, if applied to the settlement of new lands then remaining unoccupied to the amount of 431,662,336 acres, at the rate of 20 persons to each square mile, or 32 acres each person, occupy the lands of the United States in the above-mentioned year 1834, and that the value of every acre would gradually increase from one dollar to 14 dollars, or three guineas sterling, up to the period when the full settlement would take place.

The only objection to these calculations is that the increase of population, during the last 20 years, up to 1810, has not kept pace with that of earlier periods, and that the data on which they were founded were consequently incorrect. The period therefore, in which the whole of these States will be settled, must be considerably later than what has been proposed. Illustrative of those calculations were drawn up the following tables, which are forthwith presented to the reader's inspection.]

TABLE I.

[*Shewing the Number of Inhabitants in* 1796, *the Acres of Land then remaining unoccupied, the average Increase of Inhabitants, and the gradual and final Occupation of Lands.*

Years.	Number of inhabitants.	Acres of land occupied by the increase.	Acres of land remaining unoccupied.
1796	4,916,802		431,662,336
1 Year's increase		5,506,816	
1797	5,088,890		426,155,520
10 do.		66,863,712	
1807	7,178,381		359,291,808
10 do.		94,317,856	
1817	10,125,814		264,973,952
10 do.		133,044,704	
1827	14,283,461		131,929,248
7 do.		131,929,248	
about 1834.	18,406,150		000,000,000

The following calculation is founded upon these principles, viz.

1st. It is supposed that the inhabitants of the United States increase in the compound ratio of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

2d. It appears that at the end of the year 1796, the number of inhabitants in the United States, was about 4,916,802.

3d. It appears that the quantity of vacant lands in the United States was in that year about 431,662,336 acres.

4th. Of consequence, there were then in the United States, 1,139 persons to each 100,000 acres of new lands.

5th. It is supposed that new lands, on an average, were worth one dollar per acre; and that lands inhabited at the rate of 20 persons to the square mile, were worth 14 dollars, or three guineas per acre. The following therefore, is]

TABLE II.

TABLE II.

[*Shewing the increasing Value of any* 100,000 *Acres (taken equal to the Average) upon the Principle that the Increase of* 1,139 *Persons might be applied to the Settlement of them, and that as much land as they settled at the rate of* 20 *Persons to the square Mile, was worth* 14 *Dollars per Acre.*

Year.	Number of inhabitants.	Lands Ann. occupied by the increase of inhabitants.	Value of 100,000 Acres each year.	Value per Acre.		The same in Sterling.		
		Acres.	Dollars.	Dols.	Crs.	l.	s.	d.
End of 1796	1139		100,000	1	00	0	4	6
Increase	40	1280	16,640					
1797	1179	1312	116,640	1	16	0	5	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Increase	41		17,056					
1798	1220	1344	133,696	1	33	0	5	$11\frac{3}{4}$
Increase	42		17,472					
1799	1262	1408	151,168	1	51	0	6	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Increase	44		18,304					
1800	1306	1472	169,472	1	69	0	7	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Increase	46		19,136					
1801	1352	1504	188,608	1	88	0	8	$5\frac{1}{2}$
Increase	47		19,552					
1802	1399	1568	208,160	2	08	0	9	$4\frac{1}{4}$
Increase	49		20,384					
1803	1448	1631	228,544	2	28	0	10	3
Increase	51		21,216					
1804	1499	1664	249,760	2	49	0	11	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Increase	52		21,632					
1805	1551	1728	271,392	2	71	0	12	$2\frac{1}{4}$
Increase	54		22,464					
1806	1605	1792	293,856	2	93	0	13	$2\frac{1}{4}$
Increase	56		23,296					
			317,152	3	17	0	14	3
1807	1661							
1808	1719	1856	341,280	3	41	0	15	4
1809	1779	1920	366,240	3	66	0	16	$5\frac{1}{2}$
1810	1841	1984	392,030	3	92	0	17	$7\frac{1}{2}$
1815	2186	11,040	535,550	5	35	0	4	0
1820	2596	13,120	706,110	7	06	1	11	9
1825	3083	15,584	908,702	9	08	2	0	$8\frac{1}{4}$
1830	3661	18,784	1,152,894	11	52	2	12	10
1834	4255	19,008	1,400,000	14	0	3	3	0]

[It was not intended by this statement to convey the idea that the rise in the value of any particular tract of land would be in the exact proportion here mentioned. In many important instances in America it has been greater, in others perhaps less.

But it was intended to shew, that the increase in the value of American lands was, in its nature, like that of compound interest; and that assuming the ratio of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the increase of inhabitants, the general rise in the value of property resulting therefrom, was very far above the profit of capital in any of the ordinary ways of employing it.

The lowest price at which Congress at that period offered lands for sale was at two dollars per acre. The great increase of capital in America, together with the investments which Europeans have made in lands, have since considerably raised their value. Indeed, the disposal of territory annually constitutes a most important branch of the American revenue; as may be seen under article FINANCE.

Government.—Until the 4th of July, 1776, the present United States were British colonies. On that memorable day, the representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, made a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the King of Great Britain. Appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, they did, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and Great Britain was, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which Independant States may of right do. For the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, the delegates then in Congress, 55 in number, mutually pledged to each other their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honour.

At the same time they published articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the States, in which they took the style of "The United States of America," and agreed, that each State should retain its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, not expressly delegated to Congress by the Confederation. By these articles, the Thirteen United States severally entered into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, and bound themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks that might be made upon all, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or any other pretence whatever. But for the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, it was determined, that Delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the Legislature of each State should direct, to meet in Congress the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each State to recal its Delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No State was to be represented in Congress by less than two, or more than seven members: and no person could be a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years, nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in Congress, each State was to have one vote. Every State was bound to abide by the determinations of Congress in all questions which were submitted to them by the Confederation. The articles of Confederation were to be invariably observed by every State, and the Union to be perpetual: nor was any alteration at any time hereafter to be made in any of the articles, unless such alterations be agreed to in Congress, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every State. The articles of Confederation were ratified by Congress, July 9th, 1778.

These articles of Confederation being found inadequate to the purposes of a federal government, for reasons hereafter mentioned, delegates were chosen in each of the United States, to meet and fix upon the necessary amendments. They accordingly met in convention at Philadelphia, in the summer of 1787, and agreed to propose the constitution for the consideration of their constituents, which will presently be recorded.

The expense of all the several departments of the General Representative Government of the United States of America was, upon its first]

[formation, 294,558 dollars, which, at 4*s*. 6*d*. per dollar, is £66,275. 11*s*. sterling, and was thus apportioned.

Expense of the Executive Department.

	£.	*s*.
The office of the Presidency, at which the President received nothing for himself	5,625	0
Vice President	1,125	0
Chief Justice	900	0
Five Associate Justices	3,937	10
Nineteen Judges of Districts and Attorney General	6,873	15

Legislative Department.

Members of Congress, at six dollars (£1. 7*s*. per day) their Secretaries, Clerks, Chaplains, Messengers, Doorkeepers, &c.	25,515	0

Treasury Department.

Secretary, Assistant, Comptroller, Auditor, Treasurer, Register and Loan Office Keeper, in each State, together with all the necessary Clerks, Office Keepers, &c.	12,825	0

Department of State, including Foreign Affairs.

Secretary, Clerks, &c. &c.	1,406	5

Department of War.

Secretary, Clerks, Paymasters, Commissioners, &c.	1,462	10

Commissioners for settling old Accounts.

The whole Board, Clerks, &c.	2,598	15

Incidental and contingent Expenses.

For Fire-wood, Stationary, Printing, &c.	4,006	16
Total	£66,275	11

Besides the above, the Congress were (shortly after) obliged to keep 6,000 militia in pay, in addition to a regiment of foot and a battalion of artillery, which it always kept, and that increased the expenses of the War Department to 390,000 dollars, or £87,795 sterling. This expense was chiefly on account of the wars with the Indians.

The salaries of the principal officers, as well as the nature of appointments, have experienced a considerable increase since the first establishment, as will appear by the following list.

	Dollars.
The President receives per annum	25,000
Vice President	10,000
Secretary of State	5,000
Secretary of the Treasury	5,000
Secretary of the War Department	4,500
Secretary of the Navy	4,500
Comptroller of the Treasury	3,500
Treasurer	3,000
Attorney General	3,000
Auditor of the Treasury	3,000
Postmaster General	3,000
Register of the Treasury	2,400
Accountant of the War Department	2,000
Ditto of the Navy Department	2,000
Assistant Postmaster General	1,700
Total	77,600

The present expenses of government are probably much less, in proportion to wealth and numbers, than those of any nation in Europe. They amount nevertheless to six millions of dollars, though the two or three last years of war have swelled that, which is considered the current amount, in a ratio far exceeding even the immense increase between the years 1776 and 1812.—See Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of the United States. *Finance.*

Constitution.—We, the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America.

Article I.—Sect. 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Sect. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of 25 years; and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may]

[be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every 30,000; but each State shall have at least one representative; and, until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker, and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sect. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of 30 years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore* in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Sect. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sect. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do busines; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such a manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour; and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Sect. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in]

[all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Sect. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to re-consider it. If, after such re-consideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be re-considered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within 10 days, (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him; or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Sect. 8. The Congress shall have power

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises, shall be uniform throughout the United States:

To borrow money on the credit of the United States:

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes:

To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States:

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures:

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States:

To establish post offices and post roads:

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries:

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court:

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations:

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water:

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years:

To provide and maintain a navy:

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces:

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions:

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress:

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding 10 miles square) as may by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States;]

[and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock yards, and other needful buildings:—And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sect. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year 1808, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding 10 dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law, shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct tax, shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to or from one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States. And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Sect. 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and controul of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

Art. II.—Sect. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be intitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list, the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representations from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to]

[a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of 35 years, and been 14 years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased or diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

'I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States.'

Sect. 2. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sect. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them; and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors, and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sect. 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

Art. III.—Sect. 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sect. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of]

[another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Sect. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

Art. IV.—Sect. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings, shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sect. 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labour in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

Sect. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this union, but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Sect. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

Art. V.—The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year 1808, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

Art. VI.—All debts contracted, and engagements entered into before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution, and the laws of the United States, which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all Executive and Judicial]

[Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

Art. VII.—The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the 17th day of September, in the year of our Lord 1787, and of the Independence of the United States of America the 12th. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, President.

Signed also by all the Delegates which were present from Twelve States.

Attest. WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary.

In Convention, Monday, September 17, 1787.

Present,

The States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Mr. Hamilton from New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Resolved, That the preceding constitution be laid before the United States in Congress assembled, and that it is the opinion of this Convention, that it should afterwards be submitted to a Convention of Delegates, chosen in each State by the people thereof, under the recommendation of its legislature, for their assent and ratification; and that each Convention assenting to, and ratifying the same, should give notice thereof to the United States in Congress assembled.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this Convention, that as soon as the Conventions of Nine States shall have ratified this constitution, the United States in Congress assembled should fix a day on which electors should be appointed by the States which shall have ratified the same, and a day on which the electors should assemble to vote for the President, and the time and place for commencing proceedings under this constitution. That after such publication, the electors should be appointed, and the senators and representatives elected; that the electors should meet on the day fixed for the election of the President, and should transmit their votes certified, signed, sealed, and directed, as the constitution requires, to the Secretary of the United States, in Congress assembled; that the Senators and Representatives should convene at the time and place assigned; that the Senators should appoint a President of the Senate, for the sole purpose of receiving, opening, and counting the votes for President; and, that after he shall be chosen, the Congress, together with the President, should, without delay, proceed to execute this consitution.

By the unanimous order of the Convention,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, President.

WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary.

In Convention, September 17, 1787.

SIR,

We have now the honour to submit to the consideration of the United States in Congress assembled, that constitution which has appeared to us the most adviseable.

The friends of our country have long seen and desired, that the power of making war, peace, and treaties, that of levying money and regulating commerce, and the correspondent executive and judicial authorities, should be fully and effectually vested in the general government of the union; but the impropriety of delegating such extensive trust to one body of men is evident. Hence results the necessity of a different organization.

It is obviously impracticable, in the federal government of these States, to secure all rights of independent sovereignty to each, and yet provide for the interest and safety of all. Individuals entering into society must give up a share of liberty to preserve the rest. The magnitude of the sacrifice must depend as well on situation and circumstance, as on the object to be attained. It is at all times difficult to draw with precision the line between those rights which must be surrendered, and those which may be reserved; and on the present occasion this difficulty was increased by a difference among the several States as to their situation, extent, habits, and particular interests.

In all our deliberations on this subject we kept steadily in our view, that which appears to us the greatest interest of every true American, the consolidation of our union, in which is involved our prosperity, felicity, safety, perhaps our national existence. This important consideration, seriously and deeply impressed on our minds, led each state in the convention to be less rigid on points of inferior magnitude than might have been otherwise expected; and thus the constitution, which we now present, is the result of a]

[spirit of amity, and of that mutual deference and concession which the peculiarity of our political situation rendered indispensable.

That it will meet the full and entire approbation of every State is not perhaps to be expected: but each will doubtless consider, that had her interests been alone consulted, the consequences might have been particularly disagreeable or injurious to others; that it is liable to as few exceptions as could reasonably have been expected, we hope and believe: that it may promote the lasting welfare of that country so dear to us all, and secure her freedom and happiness, is our most ardent wish.

With great respect we have the honour to be, Sir, your Excellency's most obedient and humble servants, GEORGE WASHINGTON, President.

By unanimous order of the Convention.

His Excellency the President of the Congress.

The conventions of a number of the States having, at the time of their adopting the constitution, expressed a desire, in order to prevent misconstruction or abuse of its powers, that further declaratory and restrictive clauses should be added; and, as extending the ground of public confidence in the government, will best ensure the beneficent ends of its institution.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, two-thirds of both houses concurring, That the following articles be proposed to the legislatures of the several States, as amendments to the constitution of the United States, all or any of which articles, when ratified by three-fourths of the said legislatures, to be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of the said constitution: viz.

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several States, pursuant to the fifth article of the original constitution.

Art. I.—After the first enumeration required by the first article of the constitution, there shall be one representative for every 30,000, until the number shall amount to 100, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by Congress, that there shall be not less than 100 representatives, nor less than one representative for every 40,000 persons, until the number of representatives shall amount to 200, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by Congress, that there shall not be less than 200 representatives, nor more than one representative for every 50,000 persons.

Art. II.—No law varying the compensation for the services of the senators and representatives shall take effect, until an election of representatives shall have intervened.

Art. III.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

Art. IV.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Art. V.—No soldier shall in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Art. VI.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Art. VII.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

Art. VIII.—In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

Art. IX.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed 20 dollars, the]

[right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact, tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

Art. X.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Art. XI.—The enumeration in the constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

Art. XII.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

The following States have ratified all the foregoing articles of amendment to the constitution of the United States, viz. Maryland, N. Carolina, S. Carolina, New York, Virginia, and Vermont. New Hampshire, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania reject the second article; and Delaware rejects the first article. No official returns to our knowledge have been made from the other States.

Society of the Cincinnati.—This society was instituted immediately on the close of the war in 1783. At their first general meeting at Philadelphia, in May 1784, they altered and amended the original institution, and reduced it to its present form. They denominated themselves "The Society of the Cincinnati," from the high veneration they possessed for the character of that illustrious Roman, Lucius Quintius Cincinnatus.

The persons who constitute this society, are all the commissioned and brevet officers of the army and navy of the United States who served three years, and who left the service with reputation; all officers who were in actual service at the conclusion of the war; all the principal staff officers of the continental army; and the officers who have been deranged by the several resolutions of Congress upon the different reforms of the army.

There were also admitted into this society all the ministers of his most Christian Majesty to the United States; all the generals and colonels of regiments and legions of the land forces; all the admirals and captains of the navy, ranking as colonels, who had co-operated with the armies of the United States in their exertions for liberty; and such other persons as had been admitted by the respective State meetings.

The motives which originally induced the officers of the American army to form themselves into a society of friends, are summed up in their circular letter. "Having," say they, "lived in the strictest habits of amity through the various stages of a war, unparalleled in many of its circumstances; having seen the objects for which we have contended happily attained, in the moment of triumph and separation, when we were about to act the last pleasing, melancholy scene in our military drama—pleasing, because we were to leave our country possessed of independence and peace—melancholy, because we were to part, perhaps never to meet again; while every breast was penetrated with feelings which can be more easily conceived than described; while every little act of tenderness recurred fresh to the recollection, it was impossible not to wish our friendships should be continued; it was extremely natural to desire they might be perpetuated by our posterity to the remotest ages. With these impressions, and with such sentiments, we candidly confess we signed the institution.—We know our motives were irreproachable."

The society have an order, viz. a Bald Eagle of gold, bearing on its breast the emblems described as follows:—

The principal figure is Cincinnatus; three senators presenting him with a sword and other military ensigns: on a field in the back ground, his wife standing at the door of their cottage; near it a plough and other instruments of husbandry. Round the whole, *omnia reliquit servare rempublicam.* On the reverse, the sun rising, a city with open gates, and vessels entering the port; Fame crowning Cincinnatus with a wreath, inscribed, *virtutis præmium.* Below, hands joining, supporting a heart; with the motto, *esto perpetua.* Round the whole, *societas Cincinnatorum, instituta*, A. D. 1783.

Agriculture and Manufactures.—The three important objects of attention in the United States are agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. The richness of the soil, which amply rewards the industrious husbandman; the temperature of the climate, which admits of steady labour; the cheapness of land, which tempts the foreigner from his native home, has always led the inhabitants to fix on agriculture as the great leading interest of this country. This furnishes outward cargoes not only for all their own ships, but for those also which foreign nations send to their ports, or, in other words, it pays for all their importations; it supplies a great part of the clothing of the inhabitants, and food for them and their cattle.

The number of people employed in agriculture, is at least three parts in four of the inhabitants of the United States; some say more. It follows]

of course that they form the body of the militia, who are the bulwark of the nation. The value of their property, occupied by agriculture, is many times greater than the property employed in every other way. The settlement of waste lands, the sub-division of farms, and the numerous improvements in husbandry, annually increase the pre-eminence of the agricultural interest. The resources derived from it, are at all times certain and indispensably necessary: besides, the rural life promotes health by its active nature; and morality, by keeping people from the luxuries and vices of the populous towns. In short, agriculture may be considered as the spring of commerce, and the parent of the manufactures of these States.

Manufactures.—The subject of manufactures is one, in a high degree, interesting to the inhabitants of the United States, but is too copious to be treated at large in a work of this kind. We shall confine what we have to say, in this place, to a few general observations on the manufactures of these States, and to an enumeration of such articles as have been already manufactured. Mr. Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury in the United States, in his "Report on the Subject of Manufactures," and the writer (supposed to be Mr. Coxe, Assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury) of "A brief Examination of Lord Sheffield's Observations on the Commerce of the United States," in two supplementary notes on American manufactures, have given the fullest and most accurate information on this subject. To them the reader is referred, if he wishes for a more particular account of the manufactures than is here given.—They are the principal authorities for what follows.

The value of labour-saving machines has, in some degree, been known and experienced here; and by their general adoption in their most improved state, to the cotton, flaxen, hempen, metal, and part of the woollen and silken branches; but by no means yet to such a degree as to be independent of British and other foreign manufactures. As to advantageous situations for the erection of mills, and for the establishment of manufactures in general, no country has more, and few so many as the United States: it is also far from being deficient in ingenious mechanics, who are capable not only of erecting machines already invented, and making improvements upon them, but also of inventing new machines of the most complicated and useful kind.

The establishment of manufactures has naturally increased the inducements which this country, in its present state, holds out to foreigners to come to it and become citizens. The oppression that is experienced by the people in some parts of Europe, and the distresses that multitudes are brought into by the disturbed state of so many kingdoms, have excited a disposition in many of their valuable citizens, to emigrate to a country where they may enjoy freedom and peace. The effect of multiplying the opportunities of employment to those who emigrate, by manufactural establishments, to a still greater degree, would probably be an increase of the number and extent of valuable acquisitions to the population, arts, and industry of the country; but a very material objection has been made to the pursuit of manufactures in the United States, which is the impracticability of success, arising from scarcity of hands, dearness of labour, and want of capital. The last of these circumstances, want of capital, has perhaps little foundation. With regard to the scarcity of hands, the fact is applicable to, at least, certain parts of the United States. There are, on the other hand, large districts, which may be considered as pretty fully peopled; and which, notwithstanding a continual drain for distant settlements, are thickly interspersed with flourishing and increasing towns.—Connecticut and Massachusetts contained as far back as the census of 1790, on an average, as many as 55 inhabitants to every square mile; and the county of Essex, in Massachusetts, averaged 135 inhabitants to every square mile. This latter district has already reached the point at which the complaint of scarcity of hands ceases; and the above-mentioned states at large are not far remote from, and are approaching fast towards it: and having, perhaps, fewer attractions to agriculture than some other more *s.* and temperate parts of the union, they exhibit a proportionably stronger propensity to the pursuit of manufactures, which is exemplified in the maturity which some branches have already attained in these districts.

But there are circumstances that materially diminish every where the effect of a scarcity of hands. These circumstances are the great use which may be made of women and children—the vast extension given, by late improvements, to the employment of machines, which, substituting the agency of fire and water, has prodigiously lessened the necessity for manual labour; and lastly, the attraction of foreign emigrants. In all the populous towns there is already a large pro-

[portion of ingenious and valuable workmen in different arts and trades, who, by coming hither from Europe, have improved their own condition, and added to the industry and wealth of the United States. It is a natural inference, from the experience already had, that as soon as the United States shall present the countenance of a serious prosecution of manufactures; as soon as foreign artists shall be made sensible, that the state of things here affords a moral certainty of employment and encouragement, competent numbers of European workmen will transplant themselves, so as effectually to ensure the success of the design. These circumstances sufficiently obviate the objection which arises from a scarcity of hands.

But, to all the arguments which are brought to evince the impracticability of success, in manufacturing establishments in the United States, it would be a sufficient answer, to refer to the experience of what has been already done. It cannot be denied that several important branches have grown up and flourished, with a rapidity which surprises; affording an encouraging assurance of success in future attempts. Of these the following are the most considerable, viz.— Of Skins; tanned and tawed leathers, dressed skins, shoes, boots, and slippers, harness, and saddlery of all kinds, portmanteaus, and trunks, leather breeches, gloves, muffs, and tippets, parchment and glue. Of Iron; bar and sheet-iron, steel, nail rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots and other household utensils, the steel and iron work of carriages and for ship-building, anchors, scale beams and weights, and various tools of artificers, arms of different kinds. Of Wood; ships, cabinet wares, and turnery, wool and cotton cards, and other machinery for manufactures and husbandry, mathematical instruments, coopers wares of every kind. Of Flax and Hemp; cables, sail-cloth, cordage, twine and packthread. Of Clay; bricks and coarse tiles, and potters wares. Ardent spirits and malt liquors. Writing and printing paper, sheathing and wrapping paper, pasteboards, fullers or press papers, and paper hangings. Hats of fur and wool, and mixtures of both. Womens stuff and silk shoes. Refined sugars. Chocolate. Oil of animals and seeds, soap, spermaceti and tallow candles. Copper and brass wares, particularly utensils for distillers, sugar-refiners and brewers, hand irons and other articles for household use. Clocks, philosophical apparatus. Tin wares of almost all kinds for ordinary use. Carriages of all kinds. Snuff, chewing and smoking tobacco. Starch and hair powder. Lamp-black and other painters colours. Gunpowder.

Besides the manufacture of these articles, which are carried on as regular trades, and have attained to a considerable degree of maturity, there is a vast scene of household manufacturing, which contributes very largely to the supply of the community. These domestic manufactures are prosecuted as well in the Southern, as in the Middle and Northern States; great quantities of coarse cloths, coatings, serges and flannels, linsey woolseys, hosiery of wool, cotton and thread, coarse fustians, jeans and muslins, checked and striped cotton and linen goods, bedticks, coverlets, and counterpanes, tow linens, coarse shirtings, sheetings, towelling and table linen, and various mixtures of wool and cotton, and of cotton and flax, are made in the household way, and in many instances, to an extent not only sufficient for the supply of the families in which they are made, but for sale, and even in some cases for exportation. It is computed in a number of districts, that two-thirds, three-fourths, four-fifths, and in some places even a greater proportion of all the clothing of the inhabitants is made by themselves.

The above enumeration does not comprehend all the articles that are manufactured as regular trades. The following articles, though manufactured in a less extensive degree, and some of them in less perfection, ought to be added.— Gold, silver, pewter, lead, glass and stone wares of many kinds, books in various languages, printing types and presses, bells, combs, buttons, corn fans, ploughs and all other implements of husbandry. Some of these are still in their infancy, as are others not enumerated, but which are attended with favourable appearances. There are other articles also of very great importance, which, though strictly speaking, manufactures, are omitted, as being immediately connected with husbandry; such are flour and meal of all kinds, pot and pearl ashes, pitch, tar, turpentine, maple sugar, wine, and the like.

The manufacture of maple sugar, though it has for many years been carried on, in the small way, in the Eastern States, has but very lately become an object of public attention. The Eastern and Middle States furnish a sufficient number of maple trees to supply the United States with the article of sugar; and, it is asserted, of a quality "equal, in the opinion of competent judges, to the best sugars imported from the West India]

[islands." It has been also said, "that four active and industrious men, well provided with materials and conveniences proper for carrying on the business, might make, in a common season, which lasts from four to six weeks, 4000lbs. of sugar, that is 1000lbs. to each man." Notwithstanding this the export of sugar from the West Indies has been always increasing. No less than 18,000,000lbs. of West India sugars were annually imported into and consumed in the United States as far back as the year 1790, and the quantity has been increasing with the enlarged demand of a growing population.

Finance.—The revenue of the United States is raised from duties on the tonnage of vessels entered in the United States, and on imported goods, wares, and merchandise, and from an excise on various articles of consumption. The amount of the duties arising on the tonnage of vessels, for the year commencing October 1, 1790, and ending September 30, 1791, amounted to 145,347 dollars. The duties arising on goods, wares, and merchandise, for the same year, amounted to 3,006,722 dollars. The whole amount of the revenue from the excise at that period was 1,200,000 dollars.

The revenue is appropriated to the purposes of supporting the civil and military establishments, to the payment of the interest, and the diminution of the principal of the public debt.

In the year following, October 1, 1789, the expenses and revenue of government were as follows:—

	Expenses. *Dols.*	*Cts.*
Civil List	299,276	53
Additional expense	50,756	7
War Department	390,199	54
Total	740,232	14

	Revenue. *Dols.*	*Cts.*
Duties on Imports	1,903,790	48
Duties on Tonnage	165,465	93
Total	2,069,175	47

From a report of the secretary of the treasury, of January 23, 1792, it appears that the whole amount of the domestic debt of the United States, principal and interest, which had been subscribed to the loan proposed concerning that debt, by the act intituled, "An act making provision for the debt of the United States," was 31,797,481 dollars, 22 cents.

which, pursuant to the terms of that act, had been converted into stock, bearing an immediate interest of 6 per cent.	*Dols.* 14,177,450	*Cts.* 43
Stock bearing the like interest from Jan. 1, 1801,	7,088,727	79
Stock bearing an immediate interest of 3 per cent.	10,531,303	0
Making together	31,797,481	22

Of which there stood to the credit of the trustees of the sinking fund, in consequence of purchases of the public debt made under their direction, the sum of 1,131,364 dollars, 76 cents.

The unsubscribed residue of the said debt amounted to 10,616,604 dollars, 65 cents.

The debts of the respective states collectively were estimated to amount to 25,403,362 dollars, of which, 21,500,000 had been assumed, and 17,072,334$\frac{39}{100}$ subscribed, agreeably to act of Congress of August 4, 1790.

The amount of a debt due to certain foreign officers, who served the United States during the late war, with arrears of interest, was 220,646 dollars, 81 cents.

The whole amount of the foreign debt of the United States at the above period was about 12,000,000 dollars; of which about 6,900,000 were due to France, and the rest to Holland. The executive had been empowered to make an additional loan in Holland, sufficient to pay the debt to France; and measures for that purpose were afterwards carried into effect with regard to Holland.

The act, making provision for the debt of the United States, appropriated the proceeds of the w. lands as a fund for the discharge of the public debt. And the act, making provision for the reduction of the public debt, appropriated all the surplus of the duties on imports and tonnage, to the end of the year 1790, to the purpose of purchasing the debt at the market price; and authorised the President to borrow the further sum of 2,000,000 of dollars for the same object.—These measures were meant by the legislature, as early and as fast as possible, to provide for the extinguishment of the existing debt.

In the year 1790, the average proportion of his earnings which each citizen of the United States paid for the support of the civil, military, and naval establishments, and for the discharge]

[of the interest of the public debts of his country, was about 1¼ dollars; equal to two days labour nearly; that is, 5,000,000 of dollars to 4,000,000 of people. In Great Britain, France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Germany, &c. the taxes for these objects, on an average, amounted to about 6¼ dollars to each person.

From the best data that could be collected, the taxes in the United States, for county, town and parish purposes; for the support of schools, the poor, roads, &c. appeared to be considerably less than in the countries of Europe; and perhaps the objects of them, except in roads, was attained in a more perfect degree. Great precision is not to be expected in these calculations; but we have sufficient documents to prove that these assertions are not far from the truth. The proportion in the United States is well ascertained; and with equal accuracy in France, by Mr. Neckar; and in England, Holland, Spain, and other kingdoms in Europe, by him, Zimmerman, and other writers on the subject.

For the objects of the late war and civil government, in the United States, nearly 12,000,000 of dollars were annually raised, for nine years successively, apportioned on the number of inhabitants at that period, which amounted to a little short of four dollars to each person. This was raised principally by direct taxes. Perhaps a contribution of six dollars a person would not have been so severely felt, had a part of it been raised by impost and excise.

The public debt in 1793, was perhaps smaller to the existing wealth and population of the United States than the public debt of any other civilised nation. They had in fact, (including the operations of the individual States) sunk a much greater proportion of their public debt in the previous 10 years, than any nation in the world. The government had never since its organization obtained considerable loans at the rate of 6 per cent. a year, except from the bank of the United States; and these, on a capital of 10,000,000, never amounted to 7,000,000 in the whole. In proportion to the amount wanted for the service of the year, and to the increase of stock of the public debt at market, the terms have naturally become less favourable; notwithstanding the commissioners of the sinking fund are bound by existing laws to apply the residue of the annual appropriation of 8,000,000 a year to the purchase of stock. Before we proceed further it will be convenient to introduce a brief account of the origin of the bank.

This bank was incorporated by act of Congress, February 25, 1791, by the name and style of "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of the United States." The amount of the capital stock was 10,000,000 dollars, one-fourth of which was in gold and silver; the other three-fourths, in that part of the public debt of the United States, which, at the time of payment, bore an accruing interest of 6 per cent. per annum. Two millions of this capital stock of 10,000,000 was subscribed by the President, in behalf of the United States. The stockholders were to continue a corporate body by the act, until March 4, 1811; and were capable, in law, of holding property to an amount not exceeding, in the whole, 15,000,000 dollars, including the aforesaid 10,000,000 dollars, capital stock. The corporation were not allowed at any time to owe, whether by bond, bill or note, or other contract, more than 10,000,000 dollars, over and above the monies then actually deposited in the bank for safe keeping, unless the contracting of any greater debt should have been previously authorised by a law of the United States. The corporation was not at liberty to receive more than 6 per cent. per annum for or upon its loans or discounts; nor to purchase any public debt whatever, or to deal or trade, directly or indirectly, in any thing except bills of exchange, gold or silver bullion, or in the sale of goods really and truly pledged for money lent, and not redeemed in due time, or of goods which should be the produce of its bonds; but they might sell any part of the public debt of which its stock should be composed. Loans, not exceeding 100,000 dollars, might be made to the United States, and to particular States, of a sum not exceeding 50,000 dollars.

Officers for the purposes of discount and deposit only, might be established within the United States, upon the same terms, and in the same manner, as should be practised at the Bank. Four of these offices, called Branch Banks, were almost immediately established, viz. at Philadelphia, Boston, New York, Baltimore, and Charleston, Alexandria, &c. when they divided a profit of 7½ to 8½ per cent. in quarterly payments. The faith of the United States was pledged that no other bank should be established by any future law of the United States, during the continuance of the above corporation. The great benefits of this bank, as it respects public credit and commerce, have been invariably experienced.]

[The several funded capitals, together with the prices of stocks in January of the present year 1814, were as follows :—

3 per cent.	56	
Old 6 per cent.	102	
New 6 per cent.	105	the whole nominal.
Louisiana 6 per cent.	105	
Bank shares	108	

Reverting to the subject of the national debt, as it affects the more immediate time, we find that the payments on account of the principal of the public debt, from October 1, 1810, to December 31, 1811, exceeded 6,400,000 dollars. With the exception of the annual reimbursement of the 6 per cent. and deferred stocks, there remained at the end of the year 1811 no other portion of the public debt reimbursable at the will of the United States than the residue of converted stock, amounting to 565,000 dollars, and which was to be paid in the year 1812. There being nothing afterwards left, on which the laws, passed subsequently to the year 1801, for the redemption of the debt could operate, a general view of the result and effect of those laws may be here usefully presented.

	Dollars.
Exclusive of near 3,000,000 of unfunded debt since reimbursed, as detailed in the report of April 18, 1808, the public debt of the United States amounted on April 1, 1801, to	79,926,999
The whole amount of principal extinguished during the period of 10 years and nine months, commencing on April 1, 1801, and ending December 31, 1811, was	46,022,819
Leaving the amount of the old debt unredeemed on January 1, 1812,	33,904,180
And to which adding the Louisiana 6 per cent. stock, being a new debt contracted subsequent to April 1, 1801.	11,250,000
Made the whole amount of public debt on January 1, 1812,	45,154,180
The annual interest on the public debt due on April 1, 1801, amounted to	4,180,463
The annual interest of the public debt extinguished between April 1, 1801, and January 1, 1812, amounted to	2,632,982
Leaving for the amount of annual interest on the old debt unredeemed on January 1, 1812,	1,547,481
The annual interest on the Louisiana stock was	675,000
Making the annual interest on the whole debt due on January 1, 1812,	2,222,481
Which subtracted from the annual interest on the debt due on April 1, 1801,	4,180,463
Left for the difference between the amount of interest respectively payable at those two dates	1,957,982

The disposable national revenue, or that portion which alone was applicable to defray the annual national expenses, consisted only of the surplus of the gross amount of revenue collected beyond the amount necessary for paying the interest on the public debt. A diminution of that interest was with respect to the ability of defraying the other annual expenses, a positive increase of revenue to the same amount. With an equal amount of gross revenue, the revenue applicable to defray the national expenses was thus, by the effect of the reduction of the debt, 2,600,000 dollars greater than on April 1, 1801. Or, viewing the subject in another light, the laws for the reduction of the debt had, in 10 years and nine months, enabled the United States to pay in full the purchase-money of Louisiana, and increased their revenue near 2,000,000 of dollars.

If the amount of annual payments on account of both the principal and interest of the public debt, during the eight years ending 1811, be contrasted with the payments thereafter necessary for the same purpose, the difference will be still more striking. Eight millions of dollars had been annually paid on that account during these eight years. The whole amount payable after the year 1812, including the annual reimbursement on the 6 per cent. and deferred stocks, was 3,792,382 dollars, making an annual difference of more than 4,200,000 dollars, which were then to be liberated from that appropriation. And this annual payment of about 3,800,000 dollars, would have been sufficient, with some small variations, to have discharged in 10 years the whole of the residue of the existing debt, with the exception of the 3 per cent. stock, the annual interest on which amounted only to 485,000 dollars.

The redemption of principle had been thus far effected without the aid of any internal]

[taxes, either direct or indirect, without any addition during the last seven years to the rate of duties on importations, which, on the contrary, had been impaired by the repeal of that on salt, and notwithstanding the great diminution of commerce during the last four years. It thus appeared that the ordinary revenue was capable of discharging in 10 years of peace, a debt of 42,000,000 of dollars, which should seem considerably to lessen the weight of the objections to which that revenue, depending almost solely on commerce, is liable.

	Dollars.
The net revenue arising from duties on merchandise and tonnage, which accrued during the year 1809, amounted to - - - - -	6,527,168
The net revenue arising from the same sources, which accrued during the year 1810, amounted to -	12,513,490
The same revenue for the year 1811, amounted to - - - - - - - -	7,902,560
The same revenue for the year 1812, (including about 5,500,000 from duties on importations from Great Britain), amounted to - - - -	13,142,009
The same revenue for the year 1813, amounted to about - - - -	16,868,000
The sales of public lands *n.* of the river Ohio, on the average of the two years ending 1811 amounted, after deducting the expenses and charges on that fund, to the annual sum of - - - - - - - - - -	600,000

The sales in the Mississippi territory, being, in the first instance, appropriated to the payment of 1,250,000 dollars to the state of Georgia, left in the end of the year 1811, a deficiency to be provided for of 2,600,000, but this was proposed to be provided for by an addition of 50 per cent. to the existing amount of duties (together with a continuance of the temporary duties theretofore designated by the name of 'Mediterranean Fund.' —This mode was thought preferable for the time to any internal tax. With respect to the sales of public lands, besides affording a supplementary fund for the ultimate redemption of the public debt, they were anticipated as being calculated to supply, without any diminution of revenue, a bounty to soldiers enlisting in the regular service, and to facilitate the terms of loans.

The same amount of revenue was judged to be necessary, and, with the aid of loans, would, it was believed, be sufficient in case of war, as in time of peace. The same increase of duties would therefore be equally necessary in that event. Should any deficiency arise, it was to be supplied by a farther increase of duties, by a restoration of that on salt, and by a proper selection of moderate external taxes. To raise a fixed revenue of only 9,000,000 of dollars, was thought so much within the compass of the national resources, it would only require the legislature to effect the object.

With regard to the loaning system, the United States have thought it much more eligible to pay at once the difference, either by a premium in lands, or by allowing a higher rate of interest, than to increase the amount of stock created, or to attempt any operation which might injuriously affect the circulating medium of the country. Thus, supposing 40,000,000 of dollars borrowed at 8 instead of 6 per cent. it was urged that the only difference would consist in the additional payment of 800,000 dollars a year, until the principal was reimbursed.

In short, with a view to the ensuing years, and considering the aspect of public affairs presented by the executive in this year, 1811, and the measures of expense which he recommended, it was attempted to shew,—

"1. That a fixed revenue of about 9,000,000 dollars was necessary and sufficient, both under the existing situation of the United States, and in the event of their assuming a different attitude.

"2. That an addition to the rate or duties on importation is at present sufficient for that purpose, although in the course of events it may require some aid from other sources of revenue.

"3. That a just reliance may be put on obtaining loans to a considerable amount, for defraying the expenses which may be incurred beyond the amount of revenue above stated.

"4. That the peace revenue of the United States will be sufficient, without any extraordinary exertions, to discharge in a few years the debt which may be thus necessarily incurred."

The best corollary to these propositions will be a statement of the actual receipts and disbursements of these states, for 1811 and the two following years.]

[*INCOME of the UNITED STATES for three years, ending September 30, 1813.*

1811.	Dollars. Cts.	1812.	Dollars. Cts.	1813.	Dollars. Cts.
Customs, sales of lands, arrears, repayments, and all other branches of revenue, amounting together to	13,541,446 37	- - - - - -	10,934,946 90	- - - - - -	13,568,012 48
Temporary loan of December 31, 1810	2,750,000 0	Loan of 11,000,000 by act of March 14, 1812	5,847,212 50	Loan of 11,000,000 by act of March 14, 1812	4,637,487 50
				Do. 16,000,000 by act of Feb. 8, 1813	14,488 125
				Treasury notes under the acts of June 30, 1812, and February 25, 1813	5,151 300
				Other Loans, Aug. 2, 1813, &c.&c.	19,320,811 70
Total receipts	16,291,446 37	- - - - - -	16,782,159 40		37,545,954 93
Balance in the treasury, on October 1, 1810	3,459,029 72	On October 1, 1811	3,947,818 36	On October 1, 1812	2,361,652 69
Aggregate revenue	19,750,476 9		20,729,977 76		39,907,607 62

EXPENDITURE of the UNITED STATES for three years, ending September 30, 1813.

1811.	Dollars. Cts.	1812.	Dollars. Cts.	1813.	Dollars. Cts.
Civil department, including miscellaneous expenses, and those incident to the intercourse with foreign nations	1,360,858 98	- - - - - - -	1,823,069 35	- - - - - -	1,705,916 35
Army fortifications, arms, and arsenals 2,129,000	- - - - -	- 7,770,300 0	- - - - - -	- 18,484,750 49	
Navy department 2,136,000	- - - - -	- 3,107,501 54	- - - - - -	- 6,420,707 20	
Indian ditto - 142,725	- - - - -	- 230,975 0	- (Included with "army.")		
	4,407,725 0		11,108,776 54		24,905,457 69
Payments for interest on the public debt	2,225,800 93	- - - - - - -	2,498,013 19	- - - - - -	3,120,379 8
Total current expenses	7,994,384 91	- - - - - -	15,429,859 8	- - - - -	29,731,753 12
Reimbursement of the temporary loan, in March and September 1811,	2,750,000 0				
Payments on account of the principal of the public debt	5,058,272 82	- - - - - -	2,938,405 99	- - - - - -	3,197,102 7
Total expenditure	15,802,657 73	- - - - - -	18,368,325 7	- - - - - -	32,928,855 19
Balance in the treasury, September 30, 1811	3,947,818 36	- - - - - -	2,361,652 69	- - - - -	6,978,752 43
	19,750,476 9		20,729,977 76		39,907,607 62]

[By an act of August 2, 1813, a loan of 7,500,000 dollars was authorized, and the manner in which that loan was obtained was as follows. The terms were 88 dollars 25 cents in money, for 100 dollars stock, bearing an interest of 6 per cent. which was equivalent to a premium of 13 dollars 31¼ cents, on each 100, in money, loaned to the United States. Of this sum of 7,500,000 dollars, about 3,850,000 dollars were paid into the treasury during the year 1813, and the remainder was payable in the months of January and February, 1814.

For the year 1814, the expenditures, as authorized by law, were estimated as follow :

		Dollars.
1. Civil, diplomatic and miscellaneous expenses - - -		1,780,000
2. Public debt, viz.—Interest on the debt existing previous to the war	2,100,000	
Ditto on the debt contracted since the war, including treasury notes and loan for the year 1814 - - - - - - -	2,950,000	
	5,050,000	
Reimbursement of principal, including the old six and deferred stocks, temporary loans, and treasury notes - - - - -	7,150,000	
		12,200,000
		13,980,000
3. Military establishment, estimated by the secretary at war for a full complement, (including rangers, sea-fencibles, and troops of all descriptions) of 63,422 officers and men, and including ordinance, fortifications, and the Indian department, and the permanent appropriations for Indian treaties, and equipping the militia - - - - -		24,550,000
4. Navy, estimated for 13,787 officers, seamen, and boys, and for 1,869 marines, and including the service of two 74 gun ships for four months, and three additional frigates for six months of the year 1814, and the expenses of the flotillas on the coast and on the lakes - - - - -		6,900,000
Amounting altogether to - - - -		45,650,000

The ways and means already provided by law were as follow :—

1. Customs and sales of public lands. The net revenue accruing from the customs during the year 1811, amounted, as above stated, to 13,142,000 dollars. Of this sum about 4,300,000 was produced by the additional duties imposed by the act of July 1, 1811. The duties which accrued during the year 1813, were estimated at 7,000,000 dollars. The custom-house bonds outstanding on January 1, 1814, after making all the allowance for insolvencies and bad debts, were estimated at 5,500,000 dollars; and it was believed, that 6,000,000 might be estimated for the receipt of the customs during the year 1814. The sales of public lands, during the year ending September 30, 1813, had amounted to 256,345 acres, and the payments by purchasers to 706,000 dollars. It was, therefore, estimated that 600,000 dollars would be received into the treasury from this source, during the year 1814. The sum, therefore, estimated as receivable from customs and lands, was - - - 6,600,000
2. Internal revenues and direct tax. From the credits allowed by law on some of the internal duties (the nature of these is explained below) and from the delays incident to assessment and collection of the direct tax, it was not believed that more ought to be expected to come into the treasury during the year 1814, than the sum of - - - - - - - 3,500,000
3. Balance of the loan of 7,500,00, already contracted for - - - - 3,650,000
4. Balance of treasury notes already authorized - - - - - - - - - 1,070,000
5. Of the balance of cash in the treasury on December 31, 1813, amounting to about - - - - 4,680,000

There would be required to satisfy appropriations made prior to that day, and then undrawn, at least - - - - - - 3,500,000]

	Dollars.
[And leaving applicable to the service of the year 1814 - - - - - - -	1,180,000
	16,000,000
So that there remained to be provided by loans, the sum of - - - - -	29,350,000
	45,350,000

Although the interest paid upon treasury notes was considerably less than that paid for the monies obtained by the United States on funded stock, yet the certainty of their reimbursement at the end of one year, and the facilities they afforded for remittances and other commercial operations, had obtained for them a currency which left little reason to doubt that they might be extended considerably beyond the sum of 5,000,000 of dollars, hitherto authorized to be annually issued. It would, perhaps, be eligible to leave to the executive, as was done last year, a discretion as to the amount to be borrowed upon stock or upon treasury notes, that one or the other might be resorted to, within prescribed limits, as should be found most advantageous to the United States.

The amount, as intimated to have been reimbursed of the principal of the public debt during the year ending on the 30th of September last, including treasury notes and temporary loans, appeared to have been 8,201,358 dollars. As the payments on account of the loan of 16,000,000 had not then been completed, and the stock had, consequently, not then been issued, therefore, it was not practicable to state with precision the amount added to the public debt during that year: but, after deducting the above-mentioned reimbursement of 8,200,000, this addition cannot fall short of 22,500,000 dollars.

The plan of finance proposed at the commencement of the war, was to make the revenue, during each year of its continuance, equal to the expenses of the peace establishment, and of the interest of the old debt then existing, and on the loans which the war might render necessary, and to defray the extraordinary expenses of the war out of the proceeds of loans to be obtained for that purpose.

The expenses of the peace establishment, as it existed previous to the armaments of 1812, made in contemplation of war, but including the eight regiments added to the military establishment in the year 1808, and the augmentation of the navy in actual service, authorized in 1809, amounted, after deducting some casual expences

		Dollars.
of militia, and other incidental items, to about - - - -		7,000,000
The interest on the public debt, payable during the year 1814, would be, on the old debt, or that existing prior to the present war - - - - - - -	2,100,000	
On the debt contracted since the commencement of the war, including treasury notes, and allowing 560,000 dollars for interest on the loan, which must be made during the year 1814, a sum as small as can be estimated for that object - -	2,950,000	
		5,050,000
Making - - - - - - -		12,050,000
The actual receipts into the treasury from the revenues, as established in 1813, including the internal revenues and direct tax, were not estimated for the year 1814, at more than - - - - - - - - -		10,100,000
Viz.:		
From customs and public lands - - - - - -	6,600,000	
Internal revenues and direct tax - - - - -	3,500,000	
	10,100,000	
If to this sum be added that part of the balance in the treasury on the 31st of December 1813, which has been estimated above, to be applicable to the expenses of the year 1814; and which, upon the principles above stated, may be considered as a surplus of revenue beyond the expenses of the peace establisment, and of the interest on the public debt for the year 1813, and therefore applicable to the same expenses for the year 1814, which sum is estimated at -		1,180,000
And making together - - - - - -		11,280,000
There still remain to be provided new revenues capable of producing		770,000
		12,050,000]

[But as the internal revenues and direct tax, when in full operation would produce, in the year 1815, probably 1,200,000 dollars more than was estimated to be received from them in the year 1814, it would rest with Congress to decide, whether it was necessary that new and additional revenues should now be established. To what extent the existing embargo might reduce the receipts into the treasury from the customs, during the year 1814, it was difficult to estimate, as the operations of the war had reduced the receipts from the customs nearly one-half from that which was received during the year preceding the war. The former embargo reduced the revenue from the customs nearly one-half the amount of that which was received during the year preceding its full operation. In this case, however, the transition was from the full receipt of a peace revenue, to the entire suspension of exportation and of foreign commerce in American bottoms. It was not, therefore, to be presumed, that the existing embargo would cause a reduction of the war revenue in the proportion of the peace revenue. Moreover it was argued, that the effect of an act prohibiting the importation of certain articles necessarily increased the demand, and enhanced the value of those which might be lawfully imported, and that the high price they would bear would produce extraordinary importations, and in part compensate for the prohibition to export any thing in return.

To the amount of the defalcation of the revenue caused by the embargo, whatever it might be, was to be added the difference between the amount of the interest, payable in the year 1814, on the loan of that year, and the whole amount of the interests on the said loan, payable in the year 1815, as well as that part of the interest which might be payable in the year 1815, on the loan of that year. The sum of these items would be required for the year 1815, in addition to the revenues previously established, except 430,000 dollars, being the difference between the estimated increase in the receipt of the internal revenues and direct taxes, and this 770,000 remaining to be provided for in the foregoing estimate.

With these considerations it was submitted, whether it might not be expedient and prudent to provide new revenues capable of producing either the whole or such part of the 770,000 dollars unprovided for, as might appear necessary to fulfil the public engagements, and secure to the financial operations of the government, the confidence, stability, and success, which it anticipated from the country.

INTERNAL OR DIRECT TAXES.—Something yet remains to be said of the nature of the internal or direct taxes. A clearer view of them cannot be given than by the following extract from a letter from the secretary of the treasury to the chairman of ways and means, January 10, 1812.

'Before I proceed (says this perspicuous document) to answer the inquiry of the committee respecting a selection of the internal taxes now necessary, permit me to observe, that it was stated in the annual report of December 10, 1808, that "no internal taxes, either direct or indirect, were contemplated, even in the case of hostilities carried against the two great belligerent powers." An assertion which renders it necessary to show that the prospects then held out was not deceptive, and why it has not been realized.

'The balance in the treasury amounted at that time to near 14 millions of dollars. But aware that that surplus would, in a short time, be expended, and having stated that the revenue was daily decreasing, it was in the same report proposed, "that all the existing duties should be doubled on importations subsequent to the 1st day of January, 1809." As the net revenue accrued from customs during the three years, 1809, 1810, and 1811, has, without any increase of duties, exceeded dollars 26,000,000, it follows that if the measure then submitted had been adopted, we should, after making a large deduction for any supposed diminution of consumption, arising from the proposed increase, have had at this time about 20 millions of dollars on hand, a sum greater than the net amount of the proposed internal taxes for four years.

'In proportion as the ability to borrow is diminished, the necessity of resorting to taxation is increased. It is, therefore, also proper to observe, at that time the subject of the renewal of the charter of the bank of the United States had been referred by the Senate to the secretary of the treasury, nor had any symptom appeared from which its absolute dissolution without any substitute could have then been anticipated. The renewal in some shape, and on a more extensive scale, was confidently relied on: and, accordingly, in the report made during the same session to the Senate, the propriety of increasing the capital of the bank to dollars 30,000,000 was submitted, with the condition that that institution]

[should, if required, be obliged to lend one-half of its capital to the United States. The amount thus loaned might, without any inconvenience, have been increased to 20 millions. And with dollars 20,000,000 in hand, and loans being secured for 20,000,000 more, without any increase of the stock of the public debt at market, internal taxation would have been unnecessary for at least four years of war, nor any other resources been wanted than an additional annual loan of five millions; a sum sufficiently moderate to be obtained from individuals, and on favourable terms.

'These observations are made only in reference to the finances and resources of the general government. Considerations of a different nature have on both these subjects produced a different result, which makes a resort to internal taxes now necessary, and will render loans more difficult to obtain, and their terms less favourable. But the resources of the country remain the same; and if promptly and earnestly brought into action, will be found amply sufficient to meet the present emergency. With respect to internal taxes, the whole amount to be raised is so moderate, when compared either with the population and wealth of the United States, or with the burthens laid on European nations by their governments, that no doubt exists of the ability or will of the people to pay without any real inconvenience, and with cheerfulness, the proposed war taxes. For it is still hoped, that the ordinary peace revenue of the United States will be sufficient to reimburse, within a reasonable period, the loans obtained during the war, and that neither a perpetual and increasing public debt, nor a permanent system of ever progressing taxation, shall be entailed on the nation. These evils cannot, however, be otherwise avoided than by the speedy organization of a certain revenue. Delays in that respect, and a reliance on indefinite loans to defray the war expenditure, the ordinary expenses of government, the interest on the loans themselves, would be equally unsafe and ruinous; would, in a short time, injure public credit, impair the national resources, and ultimately render much heavier and perpetual taxes absolutely necessary.

'Of the gross amount of dollars, 5,000,000, to be now provided according to the preceding estimates, by internal taxation, it is respectfully proposed, that 3,000,000 should be raised by direct tax, and 2,000,000 by indirect taxes.

'The sum of 3,000,000 will not, considering the increase of population, be a much greater direct tax, than that of 2,000,000 voted in the year 1798. To this permit me to add another view of the subject.

'The direct taxes laid by the several States, during the last years of the revolutionary war, were generally more heavy than could be paid with convenience. But during the years 1785 to 1789 an annual direct tax of more than dollars 200,000 [dollars 205,189] was raised in Pennsylvania, which was not oppressive, and was paid with great punctuality. The increase of population of that State, between the years 1787 and 1812, is in the ratio of about 4 to 9. A tax of dollars 450,000, payable in the year 1813, is not higher in proportion to the population alone, and without regard even to the still greater increase of wealth and of circulating medium, than a tax of dollars 200,000 was in the year 1787. But the quota of Pennsylvania, on a tax of dollars 3,000,000, will, counting Orleans a state, hardly exceed dollars 365,000. The proposed tax will, therefore, so far as relates to Pennsylvania, be near 20 per cent. lighter, in proportion to the respective population, than that paid during the years 1785 to 1789.

'The rule of apportionment, prescribed by the constitution, operates with perhaps as much equality as is practicable, in relation to States not materially differing in wealth and situation. It may, therefore, be inferred, that a direct tax, which is not greater than Pennsylvania can pay with facility, will not press heavily upon any other of the Atlantic States. It is only in reference to the Western States, that the constitutional rule of apportionment, according to the respective number of inhabitants in each State, may be supposed to be unequal. Being at a greater distance from a market, and having, on account of the recent date of their settlements less accumulated capital, it is certainly true, that they cannot, in proportion to their population, pay as much, or with the same facility, as the Atlantic States. Two considerations will, however, much diminish the weight, if they do not altogether obviate that objection.

'1. Of the articles actually consumed in the Western States, there are two of general consumption, on which duties are laid, or proposed to be laid, and on which, being articles produced in those States, they will pay nothing or less than the Atlantic States. On salt, they will pay nothing, as the whole quantity consumed there is of domestic origin; and this observation affords an argument in favour of the restoration of the]

[duty on that article, since it will tend to equalize the operation of the direct tax. A considerable part of the sugar those States consume, nearly 7,000,000 of pounds, is also the produce of the maple, and pays no duty. And in time of war, it is probable that the residue of their consumption will, in a great degree, consist of New Orleans sugar, also duty-free.

'2. A considerable portion of the direct taxes in those States, is laid on lands owned by persons residing in other States, and will not fall on the inhabitants. It appears by a late official statement, that more than two-thirds of the land-tax of the State of Ohio, are raised on lands owned by non-residents. The portion of the quota of that State, on the United States' direct tax, which will be payable by its inhabitants, will, for that reason alone, be reduced to one-third part of the nominal amount of such quota. And although the proportion may not be the same in the other Western States, it is well known, that a similar result, though not perhaps to the same extent, will take place in all.

'From every view which has been taken of the subject, it satisfactorily appears, that the proposed amount of 3,000 is moderate, and cannot be productive of any real inconvenience, provided that the objects on which the tax shall be assessed, be properly selected.

'A direct tax may be assessed either on the whole amount of the property or income of the people, or on certain specific objects selected for that purpose. The first mode may, on abstract principles, be considered as most correct; and a tax laid, in case of selection, on the same articles in all the States, as was done in the direct tax of 1790, is recommended by its uniformity, and supported by respectable authority. It is nevertheless believed, that the systems of taxation respectively adopted by the several States, matured, modified, and improved, as they have been by long experience, will generally be found to be best adapted to the local situation and circumstances of each State; and they are certainly most congenial with the feelings and habits of the people. It is, therefore, proposed, that the direct tax should be laid and assessed in each State, upon the same objects of taxation on which the direct taxes levied under the authority of the State are laid and assessed.

'The attempt made under the former direct tax of the United States to equalize the tax by authorizing a board of commissioners, in each State, to correct the valuations made by the local assessors, was attended with considerable expense, and productive of great delay. In order to obviate this inconvenience, it is proposed that the quota assigned to each State, according to the rule prescribed by the constitution, should be apportioned by law amongst the several counties, towns, or other subdivisions of each State, adopting in each State, where a State tax is now levied, the apportionment of the State tax, whether that be an absolute quota fixed by a previous State law on the county or town, or whether it be only the amount which shall appear to have been last laid on such county by the operation of the general State laws imposing a direct tax; making the apportionment in the State where no State tax is now levied, according to the best information and materials which can be obtained; and authorizing the States respectively to alter the apportionment thus made by law, at any time previous to the day fixed by law for assessing the United States tax on individuals. The whole process of assessment will thereby be reduced to that of assessing the quota of each county, town, or other subdivision on the lands and inhabitants of such subdivision. It will be as simple, and may be effected as promptly, and with as little expense, as the assessment of a county tax: and, the objects of taxation being the same, it may be still more facilitated by authorizing an adoption of the State assessment on individuals, whenever it can be obtained from the proper authority.

'With respect to indirect taxes it does not appear necessary to resort to any other than those which had been formerly levied by the United States. As they were in operation during several years, their defects, and the modifications and improvements of which they are susceptible, are better understood than new taxes could be. With some alterations, they may produce the amount now wanted; and it does not appear that any other equally productive could be substituted with any real advantage. The gross amount of those taxes in the year 1801, was nearly one million of dollars. They would, according to the increase of population, and without any augmentation in their rate, yield now near 1,400,000 dollars. An average increase of about 50 per cent. in the rate would produce the intended gross amount of two millions. But it is believed, that that increase ought not to be the same in all those taxes, and that some are susceptible of greater augmentation or extension than others.

'1. *Duties on domestic spirits distilled.*—There is not any more eligible object of taxation than]

[ardent spirits; but the mode of taxation is liable to strong objections, particularly with respect to persons who are not professional manufacturers, and who only occasionally distil the produce of their farms. It is, therefore, proposed, that the duties on the quantity of spirits distilled, should be levied only on spirits distilled from foreign materials, at the rate of ten cents per gallon distilled; and on other distillers employing stills, the aggregate of which shall contain more than 400 gallons, at the rate of three cents per gallon distilled; and that, instead of a duty on the spirits, or of licenses in proportion to the time employed, other distillers should only pay an annual tax of five dollars for each still solely employed in the distillation of fruit, and of 15 dollars for each still otherwise employed. This tax may also, without reference to time, be made to vary according to the size of the stills. At those rates, this class of duties is estimated to produce at most 400,000 dollars; and it is intended in that case, that another duty should be levied on the same article, in the shape of licenses to retailers. By the adoption of that mode the expenses of collection will be considerably diminished, penalties for not entering stills will be unnecessary, and they will be confined, with respect to country stills, to the case of clandestine distilling without paying the tax.

'2. *Duties on refined sugar.*—A duty double of that heretofore laid, viz. at the rate of four cents per pound, is estimated to produce 200,000 dollars. The drawback both of that duty, and of that on the importation of the raw material, to be allowed.

'3. *Licenses to retailers.*—These are believed to be susceptible of considerable and very proper augmentation and extension. The following rates are estimated to produce 700,000 dollars:

	Dollars.
For a license to retail wines - - - - -	20
Ditto - - ditto - spirits generally - -	20
Ditto - - ditto - domestic spirits only	15
Ditto - - ditto - any other species of foreign merchandise	10

'Tavern keepers, licensed under the authothority of any State, and not living in any city, town, village, or within five miles thereof, to be excepted. Every other person who sells wines, foreign spirits, or foreign merchandize, otherwise than in the vessel or package of importation; or in the case of dry goods, otherwise than by the piece; and every person who sells domestic spirits in less quantity than 30 gallons, to be considered as a retailer.

'IV. *Duties on sales at auction.*—These, confined to the sales of articles of foreign produce or manufacture, and at the same rate as heretofore, may produce about 50,000 dollars.

'V. *Duties on carriages for the conveyance of persons.*—Those duties, adding at the rate of 50 per cent. on the duties formerly raised, are estimated to produce 150,000 dollars.

'VI. *Stamp duties.*—An association of ideas, which connects those duties with the attempt of Great Britain to tax America, and which might, with equal propriety, attach odium to the duty on the importation of tea, has rendered their name in some degree unpopular. The extension of post roads, and the facility of distribution, have, however, removed the most substantial objection to which they were liable. They do not appear to be more inconvenient than any other internal tax, and the expenses of collection are less than on any other, being only a commission on the sale and the cost of paper and stamping. At the same rate as heretofore, with the exception of bank notes, on which an increase appears proper (with an option to the banks to pay 1-20th part of their dividends in lieu thereof) they are estimated to produce 500,000 dollars.

RECAPITULATION.

		Dollars.
Direct tax, gross amount - - - - -		3,000,000
Duties on spirits, and licenses to distillers, gross amount - - - - - - -	400,000	
Refined sugar, gross amount	200,000	
Retail licenses, ditto - -	700,000	
Sales at auction, ditto - -	50,000	
Duties on carriages, ditto -	150,000	
Stamp Duties, ditto - - -	500,000	
		2,000,000
Total gross amount - - -		5,000,000
Deduct expenses of assessment, and collection and losses, estimated at 15 per cent. - - - - - - - - -		750,000
Net amount estimated for 1814 - -		4,250,000
But are not estimated to yield in 1813, more than - - - - - - - - -		3,600,000

'Most of the internal taxes have been estimated at their maximum; but it is hoped that any defalcation from the estimated amount, will be compensated by a diminution in the expenses of collection, which have also been computed at the highest rate.]

[‘ For the superintendence of those taxes, both direct and indirect, it appears indispensable that the office of commissioner of the revenue should be re-established. For their collection, the former offices of supervisor and inspector, are believed to have been unnecessary and injurious links in the system, and that the expense will be diminished, and the collection and accountability better secured, by the division of the states into convenient collection districts, and by the appointment of a collector to each district, who will pay into the treasury, and be immediately accountable to that department in the same manner as the collectors of customs. This arrangement, the greater amount to be collected, and the simplification in the objects and mode of taxation, will, it is hoped, reduce in a short time the expenses of collection of the indirect taxes to 7½ instead of 13 per cent. which they formerly cost, when brought to their highest degree of improvement. In estimating the charges on the direct tax of 15 per cent., 5 per cent. have been allowed for the assessment, 5 per cent. for the collection, and 5 per cent. for losses. This last item is principally on account of losses on unseated lands, and on some remote districts of country, and is not susceptible of much reduction. That for assessment may be lessened in those States where the objects of taxation do not require an annual valuation, or where the state or county assessment may be used. The expense of collection proper may be also, in some degree, lessened in cities and populous districts, and by uniting it with that of the internal taxes. It is, however, necessary that the compensation of the collectors be sufficient to command the services of men properly qualified, and in every respect worthy of the trust.

‘In performing the ungracious task of pointing out new objects of taxation, those have been submitted which appeared sufficiently productive and least oppressive. The objections to which each, including the increase of duties on importations, is liable, have not been stated; not because I was insensible of them, but because no substitute of any importance was perceived, which was not still more objectionable. Every tax being, in some degree, an evil, is therefore liable to some objection; and every one taken singly may, for that reason, be easily combated. But, if the necessity of an additional revenue be admitted, the objections afford no argument why the tax proposed should be rejected, unless another less inconvenient be substituted. The necessity of such an addition to the revenue has, in the course of this letter, been strongly urged, because it was strongly felt. But with respect to the taxes proposed, the selection is submitted with diffidence; and it will be highly gratifying that some more eligible may be devised.

‘The last inquiry of the committee relates chiefly to the terms on which loans, amounting to at least 10,000,000 of dollars per ann. may be obtained, and to the plan proper to be adopted for their reimbursement—of this subject we have already treated.’

Trade.—The vast extent of sea-coast, which spreads before these States, the number of excellent harbours and sea-port towns, the numerous creeks and immense bays which indent the coast, and the rivers, lakes, and canals which peninsulate the whole country, added to its agricultural advantages and improvements, give this part of the world superior advantages for trade. This, together with the imports, exports, shipping, manufactures, and fisheries, may properly be considered as forming one general interest; but they have been considered as constituting the more peculiar and important objects of the New England States.

The consumption of fish, oil, whalebone, and other articles obtained through the fisheries, in the towns and counties that are convenient for navigation, has become much greater than is generally supposed. It was computed that no less than 5000 barrels of mackarel, salmon, and pickled cod-fish were vended, annually, in the city of Philadelphia, as far back as 1792: add to them the dried fish, oil, spermaceti, candles, whalebone, &c. and it will be found that a little fleet of sloops and schooners must have been employed in the business.

The demand for the fore-mentioned articles is proportionably great in the other parts of the union, (especially in Boston and the large commercial towns that lie along the coast *n. e.*, which enter largely into the fishing trade), and the vessels employed in transporting them are proportionably numerous.

The quantity of fur exported from the *n.* parts of America to Great Britain, amounted yearly to about £.41,000 sterling, estimated from the freight during the years 1768, 1769, and 1770. The exports of buck-skins amounted to upwards of £.33,000. The sales of fur, (which take place in London every spring), produced, in 1782, £.4,700. It was a little increased in 1783, and in 1784 it exceeded £.245,000. All this fur was paid for by English manufacturers; and a fourth part of it was worked in England, where its worth was doubled. Great Britain has however of late years been chiefly indebted to Canada for supply of these articles; for the total value of]

[the furs and peltry exported from that colony, amounted, on an average of three years, ending 1805, to £.263,088. 13*s.* 8*d.* Exclusive of this, a large quantity of furs of all descriptions are annually sent from Canada, by way of St. John's, into the United States; not merely for supplying the demands of that country, but for exporting to China, for which market the finest furs and prime peltries are in request. The amount of these articles, sold to the Americans in the year 1806, Mr. Gray states at £.62,009. 15*s.* 2*d.* The reason of the furs being sent by this channel, rather than through the London market, is the difficulty of getting home the produce obtained for the furs in China by the East India company's ships, together with the various restrictions laid by the Directors, and the heavy duty payable on the exportation.

The advantages for trade which nature has so liberally given these States, have never, till since the establishment of the present government, been properly improved. Before the revolution, Great Britain claimed an exclusive right to the trade of her American colonies. This right, which she inflexibly maintained, enabled her to fix her own price, as well on the articles which she purchased from them, as upon those of her own manufactures exported for their consumption. The carrying trade, too, was preserved almost exclusively in her own hands, which afforded a temptation to the carriers, that was often too powerful to be withstood, to exact exorbitant commissions and freights. That Great Britain enriched herself prodigiously by this exclusive trade with her colonies, is reasonable to suppose, and will appear most clearly by the following document, made up from unquestionable authorities.

Total Amount of Imports into, and Exports from, Great Britain (exclusive of Scotland) and the British Colonies, now the United States, from 1697 *to* 1776 *inclusive, up to the Declaration of their Independence, being a Period of* 80 *Years, distinguishing each State.*

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
New England - - -	4,918,847 1 8¾	19,268,756 8 11¼	- - - - -	14,349,909 7 2½
New York - - - -	2,383,059 17 5¼	12,317,032 10 10¾	- - - - -	9,933,972 13 5½
Pennsylvania - - -	1,403,229 14 7¼	10,445,873 9 4	- - - - -	9,042,643 14 8¾
Virginia and Maryland	30,353,411 2 9¾	21,258,127 15 10	9,095,283 6 11¾	
Georgia - - - - -	806,652 4 5	917,389 17 0	- - - - -	110,737 12 7
Carolina - - - -	12,741,079 8 6¼	9,056,332 4 5¼	3,684,747 4 1	
	52,606,279 9 6¼	73,263,512 6 5¼	12,780,930 11 0¾	33,437,263 7 11¼
				12,780,030 11 0¾
			Exports exceed the Imports -	£.20,657,232 16 10½

Which was the amount (official value) of the profit derived by Great Britain during the time that those colonies were under her controul. It will presently appear that this, however considerable, bore no proportion to the benefit she has derived from them, in a commercial point of view, since the declaration of their independence.

The war which brought about the separation of these States from Great Britain, threw commercial affairs into great confusion. The powers of the old confederation were unequal to the complete execution of any measures, calculated effectually to recover them from their deranged situation. Through want of power in the old Congress to collect a revenue for the discharge of the foreign and domestic debt, the credit was destroyed, and trade of consequence greatly embarrassed. Each State, in her desultory regulations of trade, regarded her own interest, while that of the union was neglected. And so different were the interests of the several States, that their laws respecting trade often clashed with each other, and were productive of unhappy consequences. The large commercial States had it in their power to oppress their neighbours; and in some instances, this power was directly or in-]

[directly exercised. These impolitic and unjustifiable regulations, formed on the impression of the moment, and proceeding from no uniform or permanent principles, excited unhappy jealousies between the clashing States, and occasioned frequent stagnations in their trade, and, in some instances, a secresy in their commercial policy. But the measures which have since been adopted by Congress, under an efficient government, soon put a new and more promising face upon public affairs. Invested with the adequate powers, Congress formed a system of commercial regulations, with a view of enabling the country to meet the opposers of its trade upon their own ground; a system which has certainly placed its commerce on a respectable, uniform, and intelligible footing, adapted to promote the general interests of the union, with the smallest injury to the individual States.

The balance of trade, in favour of Great Britain during 80 years, up to the period of the independence of these States, was, we have already seen, somewhat more, on an average, than a quarter of a million annually. The balance she obtained in her favour, during the six years immediately succeeding, was upwards of £.360,000 annually, being an increase of £.110,000, compared with the annual average of the period up to 1776, as will appear by the following Tables, showing

The official Value of Imports and Exports from Great Britain and the British Colonies in N. America, now the United States, between the Years 1777 *and* 1782 *(six Years) during the Disturbances; distinguishing each Colony or State.*

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
New England - - -	5,159 5 0	- - - - -	5,159 5 0	
New York - - - -	65,611 6 8	1,619,278 0 10	- - - -	1,553,666 14 2
Pennsylvania - - -	679 17 2	7,537 6 7	- - - -	6,857 9 5
Virginia and Maryland	58 7 11	106,372 2 10	58 7 11	
Georgia - - - - -	10,169 0 3	- - - - -	- - - -	96,203 2 7
Carolina - - - - -	116,299 2 10	637,530 14 8	- - - -	521,231 11 10
	197,976 19 10	2,370,718 4 11	5,217 12 11	2,177,958 18 0
				5,217 12 11
			Exports exceed Imports	2,172,740 5 1
			Annual average Excess of Exports	£ 362,123 6 8

But, although the balance of trade for any six years preceding the Revolution, on the average of the whole period of 80, amounted to a quarter of a million, it is evident that the trade of the six years immediately preceding, was infinitely greater even than that of the six years during the disturbances, or more than double, as will thus appear.]

[*Table*

[*Table of Imports and Exports between Great Britain and the Colonies of N. America (now the United States) for Six Years, ending* 1776, *distinguishing the Imports and Exports of each Colony, and the Balances in favour of Great Britain.*

Places.		Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
New England - - -	1771	150,381 17 2	1,420,119 1 1	- - - - -	1,269,737 3 11
	1772	126,265 7 6	824,830 8 9	- - - - -	698,565 1 3
	1773	124,624 19 6	527,055 15 10	- - - - -	402,430 16 4
	1774 to 1776	229,599 2 6	689,151 15 11	- - - - -	459,552 13 5
New York - - - -	1771	95,875 8 11	653,621 7 6	- - - - -	557,745 18 7
	1772	82,707 8 6	343,970 19 9	- - - - -	261,263 11 3
	1773	76,246 12 0	289,214 19 7	- - - - -	212,968 7 7
	1774 to 1776	269,345 5 7	439,165 14 7	- - - - -	169,820 9 0
Pennsylvania - - -	1771	31,615 19 9	728,744 19 10	- - - - -	697,129 0 1
	1772	29,133 12 3	507,909 14 0	- - - - -	478,776 1 9
	1773	36,652 8 9	426,448 17 3	- - - - -	389,796 8 6
	1774 to 1776	246,995 9 7	627,383 11 3	- - - - -	380,388 1 8
Virginia and Maryland	1771	577,848 16 6	920,326 3 8	- - - - -	342,477 7 2
	1772	528,404 10 6	793,910 13 2	- - - - -	265,506 2 8
	1773	589,803 14 5	328,904 15 8	260,898 18 9	
	1774 to 1776	1,443,613 12 8	530,659 16 9	912,953 15 11	
Georgia - - - - -	1771	63,810 10 9	70,493 19 3	- - - - -	6,683 8 6
	1772	66,083 18 9	92,406 4 4	- - - - -	26,322 5 7
	1773	85,391 1 8	62,932 19 8	22,458 2 0	
	1774 to 1776	103,694 3 0	171,296 6 0	- - - - -	67,602 3 0
Carolina - - - -	1771	420,311 14 8	409,169 9 4	11,142 5 4	
	1772	425,923 1 1	449,610 2 2	- - - - -	23,687 1 1
	1773	456,513 8 4	344,859 9 1	111,653 19 3	
	1774 to 1776	1,025,520 11 0	384,362 7 5	641,158 3 7	
		7,286,362 15 4	12,036,549 11 10	1,960,265 4 10	6,710,452 1 4
					1,960,265 4 10
				£	4,750,186 16 6
Annual average Excess of Exports					791,697 16 1
Annual average Excess during the six years of Disturbances					362,123 6 8
Annual average loss by the six years of Disturbances				£	429,574 9 5

If then such were the advantages of a few years of insecurity and restricted trade, it is not to be wondered at that immediately upon the signing the treaty of 1783, the amount of benefit from the intercourse that Great Britain carried on with her former colonies, began rapidly to increase in a manner to exceed the expectation of the most sanguine. The balance in favour of England for the six years, from 1783 to 1788, was upwards of 7,000,000, being an increase]

[of 1,000,000 on the former period of six years, ending 1776.

In the next six years ending 1794, it reached to upwards of 15,000,000.

In the next six years ending 1800, it reached to nearly 24,000,000.

In the next six years ending 1806, it reached to upwards of 28,000,000, which is the highest pitch it ever attained. It will be here satisfactory to add,

The annual Amount of Imports into, and Exports from, Great Britain and the United States, from 1783, the Year of the acknowledgement of their Independence, to the Year 1813, distinguishing the Excess of Exports of each Year.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Exports Excess.
1783	314,058	1,436,228	1,122,170
1784	701,189	3,359,864	2,658,675
1785	775,890	2,078,743	1,302,853
1786	743,643	1,431,254	687,611
1787	780,445	1,794,214	1,013,769
1788	883,618	1,709,928	826,310
1789	893,305	2,336,407	1,443,102
1790	1,043,388	3,258,237	2,214,849
1791	1,011,366	4,014,416	3,003,050
1792	954,141	4,075,002	3,120,861
1793	827,923	3,334,852	2,506,929
1794	590,847	3,746,830	3,155,983
1795	1,295,237	5,041,810	3,746,573
1796	1,997,374	5,735,218	3,737,844
1797	1,074,635	4,691,620	3,616,985
1798	1,627,710	5,206,603	3,578,893
1799	1,635,380	6,593,713	4,958,333
1800	2,089,652	6,384,202	4,294,550
1801	2,706,518	7,517,531	4,811,013
1802	1,923,504	5,319,491	3,395,987
1803	1,914,098	5,272,812	3,358,714
1804	1,651,467	6,398,426	4,746,959
1805	1,766,556	7,146,765	5,380,209
1806	1,999,884	8,613,124	6,613,240
1807	2,847,522	7,921,120	5,073,598
1808	836,342	3,992,060	3,155,718
1809	2,205,331	5,187,615	2,982,284
1810	2,614,405	7,813,317	5,198,912
1811	2,309,415	1,431,829	
1812	1,294,152	4,135,592	2,841,440
1813*			

* The documents of this year were destroyed at the late fire at the Custom House.

June 20, 1814. W. IRVING.

We now proceed to offer a more specific account of the trade of these States, in order to give our readers an idea not merely of their general importance, as applying to the amount of their individual imports and exports, but to shew of what the same may consist, and the countries with which the intercourse is carried on.

	Dollars.	Cents.
The duties arising on goods, wares, and merchandize imported into the United States, commencing Oct. 1, 1790, and ending Sept. 30, 1791, amounted to	3,006,722	85 7/12
The duties on the tonnage of vessels that entered these States, during the same period, amounted to Tons 95ths. 737,075 63 — Tons 95ths. American 504,061 76 — Dols. Cents. 30,824 72½ — Tons 95ths. Foreign 233,013 82 — Dols. Cents. 114,522 75	145,347	75
Total Dollars	3,152,070	60 7/12

The Value of the Exports for the Year, ending Sept. 30, 1791, with their destination, was as follows.

	Dols.	Cts.
To the dominions of Russia	3,570	
To the dominions of Sweden	21,866	2
To the dominions of Denmark	277,273	53
To the dominions of the United Netherlands	1,634,825	6
To the dominions of Great Britain	7,953,418	21
To the Imperial ports of the Austrian Netherlands and Germany	362,010	21
To Hamburgh, Bremen, and other Hanse Towns	64,259	25
To the dominions of France	4,298,762	26
To the dominions of Spain	1,301,286	95
To the dominions of Portugal	1,039,696	47
To the Italian Ports	31,726	90
To Morocco	3,660	50
To the East Indies, generally	318,628	46
To Africa, generally	168,477	92
To the West Indies, generally	59,434	36
To the N. W. Coast of America	3,380	
To Europe and the West Indies for a market	29,274	5
Total Dollars	17,571,551	45]

[*Amount of Exports for the Year, ending Sept. 30, 1792.*

	Dols.
New Hampsh.	181,407
Massachusets	2,889,922
Rhode Island	698,084
Connecticut	1,237,473
New York	2,528,085
New Jersey	23,524
Pennsylvania	3,820,646
Delaware	133,978
Maryland	2,550,258
Virginia	3,549,499
N. Carolina	503,294
S. Carolina	2,430,425
Georgia	458,973
	21,005,568

Amount of Exports for the Year, ending Sept. 30, 1793.

Dols.
198,197
3,676,412
616,416
770,239
2,934,369
54,176
6,958,736
71,242
3,687,119
2,984,317
363,307
3,195,874
501,383
26,011,787

Value and Destination of Exports for the Year, ending Sept. 30, 1793.

Russia	5,769
Sweden	310,427
Denmark	870,508
Holland	3,169,536
Great Britain	8,431,239
Imperial Ports	1,013,347
Hanse Towns	792,537
France	7,050,498
Spain	2,237,950
Portugal	997,590
Italian Ports	220,688
Morocco	2,094
East Indies	253,131
Africa	251,343
West Indies	399,559
N. W. Coast of America	1,586
Uncertain	3,986
	26,011,788

Thus the exports of the United States had increased, in the three years, ending Sept. 1793, from 17,500,000 to 26,000,000 of dollars.

The above exports consisted, in a great degree, of the most necessary food of man and of working animals, and of raw materials applicable to manufactures of the most general utility and consumption.

The exports were, at this period, five or nearly six times the amount of the national taxes and duties. The amount of the outward freight of the ships and vessels of the United States, was about equal to all their national taxes and duties. The inward freight was considerable. The earnings of the fishing vessels, in lieu of freight, were also considerable. The coasting freights were greater in value than both the last. All ships and vessels departed from the United States, fully laden, excepting a part of the East India traders. The quantity of tonnage, employed in the coasting trade was very considerable, as was also that employed in the cod and whale fisheries. The imports of the United States were less in value than the exports, deducting the outward freights of their own ships, (which were returned in goods,) the net sales of their ships to foreigners, and the property imported by migrators from foreign countries.

The very great proportion of the imports, which consisted of manufactures, (and from raw materials which America could produce,) afforded constant and inviting opportunities to lessen the balance against the United States, in their trade with foreign countries, held out a certain home market to skilful and industrious manufacturers in America, and gave promises to the landholder and farmer of a very increasing demand for his produce, in which he could not be deceived, and to which the steady price of their produce, during the existence of embargoes, has borne testimony.

The imports had not, however, been hitherto swelled in proportion to the increase of population and wealth. The reason was, the constant introduction of new branches of manufacture, and the great extension of the old branches.

The imports had almost ceased to exhibit certain articles of naval and military supply, and others of the greatest utility and consumption. They consisted in a small degree of necessaries, in a great degree of articles of comfortable accommodations, and in some degree of luxuries; but the exports consisted chiefly of prime necessaries, with some articles of mere comfort and utility, and some of luxury. The following will be found to be the quantities of some of the principal articles of exportation from the United States, during the year, ending September, 1792.

3,145,255 Bushels of grain and pulse (principally wheat, Indian corn, rye, beans, and peas.)

44,752 Horses, horned cattle, mules, hogs, and sheep.

1,469,723 Barrels of flour, meal, biscuit, and rice, reducing casks of various sizes, to the proportion of flour barrels.]

[146,909 Barrels of tar, pitch, turpentine, and rosin.
116,803 Barrels of beef, pork, mutton, sausages, oysters, tripe, &c. reducing casks of various sizes, to the proportion of beef and pork barrels.
231,776 Barrels of dried and pickled fish, reducing them to barrels of the same size.
948,115 Gallons of spirits, distilled in the United States.
7,823 Tons, 12 cwt. and 14lb. of pot-ashes and pearl-ashes.
112,428 Hogsheads of tobacco.
60,646,861 Feet of boards, plank, and scantling.
19,391½ Tons of timber.
18,374 Pieces of timber.
1,080 Cedar and oak ship knees.
71,693,863 Shingles.
31,760,702 Staves and hoops.
191 Frames of houses.
73,318 Oars, rafters for oars, and handspikes.
48,860 Shook or knock-down casks.
52,381 Hogsheads of flax seed.

The exports of the year of which the above are a part, amounted to 21,000,000 of dollars—but the exports of the next following year, (ending Sept. 30, 1793), amounted to 5,000,000 more, being, as we have seen above, 26,000,000 of dollars. Provisions and raw materials had greatly increased. Of flour alone there were shipped 1,103,000 of casks.

The imports began now generally to be brought directly (and not circuitously) from the countries which produced or manufactured them. —China, India proper, the isles of Bourbon and Mauritius, Good Hope, the S. settlements of America and the W. Indies, the Wine Islands, the countries on the Mediterranean and Baltic Seas, Great Britain and Ireland, France, the Netherlands and Germany, Spain and Portugal. Less than half the ships and vessels belonging to the United States, were sufficient to transport all the commodities they consumed or imported.

Their citizens might be lawfully concerned in any branch of foreign trade, except the slave trade, whether carried on from the United States, or from any other country.

Their commerce was diversified and prosperous, and consisted in importing for their own consumption, and with regard to their export, in the coasting and inland trades, and the Indian trade. There was no branch of commerce, foreign or domestic, in which every district, city, port, and individual was not equally entitled to be interested.

The lawful interest of money was 6 per cent. per annum in most of the States: in a few it was 7 per cent; in one it was 5 per cent.

The commanders and other officers of American ships were deemed skilful and judicious; from which cause, combined with the goodness of their ships and of their equipment, insurances upon their vessels were generally made in Europe, upon the most favourable terms, compared with the corresponding risks on board of the vessels of other nations; and this opinion has not ceased, with other causes, to operate in their favour to the present day.

The separate American States had (with one small exception) abolished the slave trade, and they had also, in some instances, abolished negro slavery; in others they had adopted efficacious measures for its certain, but gradual abolition. The importation of slaves was discontinued, and could never be renewed, so as to interrupt the repose of Africa, or endanger the tranquillity of the United States. The steady use of efficacious alternatives was preferred to the immediate application of more strong remedies, in a case of so much momentary and intrinsic importance.

The clothes, books, household furniture, and the tools or implements of their trade or profession, brought by emigrators to America, were exempted from the import duty, and they might begin their commerce, manufactures, trades, or agriculture on the day of their arrival, upon the same footing as a native citizen. There was no greater nor other tax upon foreigners, or their property in the United States, than upon native citizens. All foreign jurisdiction, in ecclesiastical matters, was inconsistent with the existing laws and constitutions.

The poor taxes were very small, owing to the facility with which every man and woman, and every child who was old enough to do the lightest work, could procure a comfortable subsistance. The industrious poor, if frugal and sober, often placed themselves, in a few years, above want.

Horses and cattle and other useful beasts, imported for breeding, were exempted by law from the import duty.

All the lands in the United States were free from tythes. The medium annual land rents of Europe were greater per acre than the medium purchase was in the United States; including, in the estimate, the value of the old improved farms]

[in America, and the great mass of unimproved lands.

The productions and manufactures of military supplies and articles, enabled these States to derive from their own resources ships of war, gunpowder, cannon and musket balls, shells and bombs, cannon and carriages, rifles and cutlasses, grapnals, iron, lead, cartouch boxes, sword belts, cartridge paper, saddles, bridles, and holsters, soldiers' and sailors' hats, buckles, shoes and boots, leathern breeches, naval stores, sheathing paper, malt and spirituous liquors, manufactured tobacco, soap, candles, lard, butter, beef, pork, bacon, hams, peas, biscuit, and flour, and other articles for the land or marine service.

Such, in a commercial view, were the United States in 1793, and such were the grounds upon which their rapidly increasing prosperity had stood.

The following Tables will show that, in the course of 13 years, their Exports to Great Britain alone became more than equal to those they had made to all parts in 1793, since the Total Exports were then 26,011,787 dollars, and in 1807, to Great Britain, 36,739,181 dollars, or £.6,531,410 sterling.

IMPORTS and EXPORTS between GREAT BRITAIN and the UNITED STATES of AMERICA, (including Louisiana) for Three Years, ending January 5, 1808, distinguishing each Year, and the principal Articles of such Imports and Exports; and also foreign Merchandize from British Produce and Manufactures.

Real Value of Imports from the United States of America.

	1805.	1806.	1807.
	£.	£.	£.
Annotto	6,290	71,353	64,402
Ashes, Pearl, and Pot	102,952	138,498	144,326
Cochineal	720	77,817	9,104
Coffee	18,259	25,904	66,636
Corn, Grain, and Meal	151,322	422,429	922,308
Hides	15,985	12,406	18,590
Indigo	12,756	47,297	69,909
Pitch and Tar	48,511	34,378	40,266
Seeds; viz. Flax and Linseed	1,652	11,590	7,050
Skins and Furs	68,691	65,062	26,116
Sugar	13,866	51,173	13,030
Tobacco	313,487	417,946	447,883
Turpentine	118,308	100,822	77,638
Wood; viz. Deals and Fir Timber	36,164	64,758	131,741
——— Mahogany	30,378	29,432	81,482
——— Masts	5,519	10,121	5,355
——— Staves	106,681	100,203	146,734
Wool; viz. Cotton	2,927,818	2,566,729	4,115,136
Other articles	97,444	73,825	143,704
Total Imports £.	4,076,803	4,360,743	6,531,410

[Real Value of Exports from England to the United States of America.

	1805.	1806.	1807.	
	£.	£.	£.	
Brass and Copper Manufactures	90,342	82,142	168,004	
Cotton Goods	3,267,843	4,645,739	4,609,211	
Glass and Earthenware	165,563	175,526	162,542	
Haberdashery	245,433	313,764	310,862	
Hats	98,904	99,260	64,620	
Iron and Steel	739,049	684,678	773,188	
Lead	72,003	44,619	31,166	
Linens	319,950	289,044	306,821	
Salt	60,830	84,689	81,574	
Silk Manufactures	465,442	425,165	417,418	
Tin and Pewter	56,550	79,189	75,875	
Woollens	4,621,827	4,866,178	4,239,118	
Other articles	815,732	599,495	606,114	
British Produce and Manufactures	11,019,468	12,389,488	11,846,513	
Foreign Merchandize	427,471	476,063	251,429	
Total Exports	11,446,939	12,865,551	12,097,942	36,410,432

(Balance in favour of England, by the two foregoing Tables, £.21,441,476.)

Real Value of Exports from England to all Parts of America and the W. Indies (exclusive of the United States.)

	British Manufactures.	Foreign Merchandise.	Total.	
	£.	£.	£.	
Years, ended 10th October, 1806	7,275,911	696,495	7,972,406	
—— 1807	8,635,860	650,761	9,286,621	
—— 1808	12,041,320	817,775	12,859,095	
	27,953,091	2,165,031		30,118,122
Excess of Exports to the United States				6,292,310

Thus, upon an average of three years, ending 1807, the real value of British manufactures and foreign merchandise, exported to America and the W. Indies, exceeded that to all other parts by upwards of 6,000,000.

But if these States had thus benefited Great Britain, up to this period, by their intercourse, their own improvement was not less striking. In the course of five years, from the time of their independence, their political economy might be said to be firmly established upon its own basis; we shall therefore present our readers with a]

[*General Statistical View of the United States, for a Period of* 20 *Years, from* 1788 *to* 1808.
Collected chiefly from Official Documents.

Enumeration.	Number and Value in 1788.	Number and Value in 1808.	Increase in 20 Years.
Number of States in the Union	13	21	8
Square acres	283,800,000	600,000,000	316,200,000
Acres of land in cultivation	1,210,500	2,390,400	1,179,000
Average price of land, per acre	2 dollars	6 dollars	4 dollars
Population.—Whites and free people of colour	2,500,000	5,430,000	2,930,000
Slaves	700,000	1,070,000	370,000
Total population	3,200,000	6,500,000	3,300,000
Effective militia	450,000	930,000	480,000
Regular army	- - - -	2,000	2,000
Naval force	- - - -	(10 frigates,) (81 sloops& gunboats.)	91 vessels
Dwelling-houses	640,000	1,225,000	585,000
Horses	600,000	1,200,000	600,000
Horned cattle	1,200,000	2,950,000	1,750,000
Post offices	400	1,848	1,448
Revenues of general ditto	12,000*l.*	68,850*l.*	56,850*l.*
Expenses of ditto	11,000*l.*	58,500*l.*	47,500*l.*
Newspapers	80	350	270
The post extends in miles	5,000	33,000	28,000
Tonnage of merchant vessels	250,000	1,207,000	957,000
Value of imports in sterling	2,475,000*l.*	22,000,000*l.*	19,525,000*l.*
Exports in Sterling Money. Domestic produce	2,025,000*l.*	10,957,408*l.*	8,932,408*l.*
Exports in Sterling Money. Foreign goods	225,000*l.*	13,419,800*l.*	13,194,800*l.*
Exports in Sterling Money. Total	2,250,000*l.*	24,377,208*l.*	22,127,208*l.*
Annual revenue	1,800,000*l.*	4,000,000*l.*	2,200,000*l.*
Specie in circulation	2,250,000*l.*	3,800,000*l.*	1,550,000*l.*
National debt	16,500,000*l.*	15,238,700*l.*	(Decrease 1,261,300*l*)

The commerce of these States, previous to the late embargo, was most flourishing, notwithstanding the depredations said to have been committed upon it by the belligerent powers of Europe, as will appear from the following official documents, laid before the house of representatives on February 29, 1808, by Albert Gallatin, secretary of the treasury.

Exports of the United States, from October 1, 1806, *to October* 1, 1807.

	Dollars.
The goods, wares, and merchandize of domestic growth, or manufacture	48,699,592
The goods, wares, and merchandize of foreign growth or manufacture	59,643,558
Total	108,343,150

Recapitulation of the above.

The foreign goods are classed as follows:

1st. Articles free of duty by law	2,080,114
2nd. Do. liable to duty, and on re-exportation entitled to drawback	48,205,943
3rd. Do. liable to duty, but no drawback on re-exportation	9,357,501
	59,643,558]

[N.B. The duties collected on the third class are derived directly from the carrying trade, and amount to 1,393,877 dollars.

The articles of domestic growth or manufacture are arranged as follows:

		Dollars.
1st.	Produce of the sea	2,804,000
2nd.	Do. of the forest	5,476,000
3rd.	Do. of agriculture	37,832,000
4th.	Do. of manufactures	2,409,000
5th.	Do. uncertain	1,79,000
		48,700,000

The following is a statement of the duties paid upon imports into the principal sea-port towns of the United States, calculated upon an average of four years, ending March, 1805.

Towns.	*States.*	*Dollars.*
New York,	New York	12,862,020
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania	7,777,965
Boston,	Massachusetts	6,408,400
Baltimore,	Maryland	3,861,963
Charleston,	South Carolina	3,031,639
Norfolk,	Virginia	1,761,673
Salem,	Massachusetts	1,034,498
Savannah,	Georgia	914,039
Providence,	Rhode Island	781,556
Portland,	Maine	545,265
Newhaven,	Connecticut	510,687
Wilmington,	North Carolina	319,110
		39,808,765
	Annual average	9,952,191

Mr. Key, in his very able and masterly speech against the continuance of the embargo, stated, that of the exports of domestic produce of the United States, in 1807, amounting to 48,699,592 dollars, only 9,762,204 were exported to European ports under the control of France, which had been since interdicted by the British orders in council; and that there consequently remained a surplus of 31,937,288 dollars of American produce, which might yet have been exported, if the embargo had not taken place. But if any thing further were wanting to prove, that war and embargo are not conducive to the commercial interest of these States, the great decrease of the exports in 1811 would amply testify the assertion.

By the following official statement of goods, wares and merchandise, exported from the United States, during one year, prior to October 1, 1811, it will be seen that the total exports did not exceed 61,316,833 dollars, being a deficit of the exports of 1807, to the amount of 47,026,307 dollars.

	Dollars.
The goods, wares and merchandise, of domestic growth or manufacture, included in this statement, are estimated at	45,294,043
And those of foreign growth or manufacture, at	16,022,790
	61,316,833

The articles of domestic growth or manufacture may be arranged under the following heads, viz.

Produce of the sea	1,413,000
Produce of the forest	5,286,000
Produce of agriculture	35,556,000
Manufactures	2,376,000
Uncertain	663,000
	45,294,000

And they were exported to the following countries, viz.

To the dominions of Russia, Prussia, Sweden and Denmark	3,055,833
——— Great Britain	20,308,211
——— Spain and Portugal	18,266,466
——— France and Italy	1,194,275
To all other countries, or not distinguished	2,469,258
	45,294,043

The goods, wares and merchandise of foreign growth or manufactures, were exported to the following countries, viz.

To the dominions of Russia, Prussia, Sweden and Denmark	5,340,117
——— Great Britain	1,573,344
——— Spain and Portugal	5,772,572
——— France and Italy	1,712,537
To all other countries, or not distinguished	1,624,220
	16,022,790

We now proceed more specifically to notice the relations between these States and Great Britain and her colonies.

About £.800,000 or £.1,000,000 of Birmingham manufactures are sent, upon the average, to America, in years of open intercourse; but the]

[erection of steel furnaces, by the Americans, and the circumstance of their procuring their iron from Sweden, has lately tended to diminish this export on the part of Great Britain. The export of Birmingham to America, previous to February, 1811, was to the value of £.800,000; but, for some time before, was very casual: the exports of the same articles to other parts, about the same period, did not exceed £.300,000 annually. The progress of N. American manufactures within the last three or four years has been great, but not so alarming as generally imagined. The circumstance of numerous advertisements having been recently seen in the New York papers, for hands to engage in business peculiar to Manchester and Birmingham, is best answered by the great increase, upon the whole, of British exports to America, and the W. Indies in general. This will appear most plainly by the following document.

Return to an Order of the House of Commons, February 7, 1812, for an Account of the Total Value of EXPORTS from Great Britain to all Parts of America and the West Indies; distinguishing British Produce and Manufactures from Foreign and Colonial Produce, and distinguishing the United States from other Parts of America, for Four Years, ending 1810.

Official Value of Exports, to

	The United States.			Other Parts of America and the West Indies.			All Parts of America and the West Indies.		
Years	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.
1807	7,743,229	177,891	7,921,120	6,226,746	739,523	6,966,269	13,969,975	917,414	14,887,389
1808	3,933,533	58,527	3,992,060	10,725,268	1,158,200	11,883,468	14,658,801	1,216,727	15,875,528
1809	5,025,245	162,370	5,187,615	12,647,689	1,457,225	14,104,914	17,672,934	1,619,595	19,292,529
1810	7,601,648	211,669	7,813,317	10,991,343	1,613,426	12,604,769	18,592,991	1,825,095	20,418,086

Real Value of Exports, to

	The United States.			Other Parts of America and the West Indies.			All Parts of America and the West Indies.		
Years.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total.
1807	11,846,513	251,429	12,097,942	10,439,423	914,373	11,353,796	22,285,936	1,165,802	23,451,738
1808	5,241,739	61,127	5,202,866	16,591,871	1,581,185	18,173,056	21,833,610	1,642,312	23,475,922
1809	7,258,500	202,268	7,460,768	18,014,219	1,819,477	19,833,696	25,272,719	2,021,745	27,294,464
1810	10,920,752	296,933	11,217,685	15,640,166	2,043,541	17,683,707	26,560,918	2,340,474	28,901,392

Custom House, London, February 18, 1812.

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector of Imports and Exports.

From which it appears, that although there was a considerable falling off in the exports to the United States in 1808 and 1809, the deficiency was more than accounted for by an increased trade to other parts of America, and, what in many regards could not be less beneficial to the British colonies.]

[It was asserted by the merchants examined by the committee on the orders in council, that when trade was open to the United States it was steady, and could be regularly calculated upon; it was regularly increasing up to 1808. Twenty years ago Americans were behind hand in payments, but had been progressively improving. In 1807, there was no difficulty in getting payment for shipments. In 1809 and 1810, payments were better than ever, and money was frequently advanced to save the discount. In 1811, nothing was done but a few shipments, considered a high speculation. During the embargo in 1808, there were considerable shipments to Canada, for smuggling into the United States; the same was attempted in 1812, but with unfortunate results.

Before the interruption of trade, about one fifth of exports to America was re-exported to S. America and the E. Indies; but the decline of these re-exports had naturally kept pace with that of the original exports from England.

On the other hand, however, the rising prosperity of the British colonies in N. America in 1808, was justly attributable, in a great measure, to the restrictions on trade in other parts of the world, in Europe in particular. The non-intercourse had also the effect of throwing a vast number of people of the United States into those colonies, particularly into Canada. By its influence the outports of Great Britain were, perhaps, more particularly benefited than those of London. Thus Liverpool, as well as Glasgow, supplied Canada with the necessaries they formerly procured from the United States. Such was the substance of the evidence delivered on the question of the repeal of the Orders in Council.

The W. Indies, during the embargo, were supplied from Canada, by means of an entrepôt established at Bermuda; and for the security of such intercourse, six or seven convoys were established, proceeding as far as Halifax.

We shall presently see, that the British tonnage employed between the American colonies and the W. Indies, has increased at least in equal rates, to the falling off of the shipping of the United States, during the period of an embargo; but a short review of the naval power of the latter might here be desirable.

The United States have, doubtless, contributed much to the support of the navy of Great Britain, by the employment they have given to her ships. From August 1789, to August 1790, no less than 230,000 tons of British vessels cleared from these States; which much exceeds the quantity of vessels they employed the same year in the Russian trade. The whole Baltic trade of Great Britain, with all the countries of the various powers that lie within the Sound, important as it was to her, did not even, at that early period, fill more. Their trade with Holland, France, Spain, and Portugal, did not altogether employ as many vessels. Their whole fisheries, American colonial trade, and W. India trade, did not employ and load more. The tonnage of the whole of the American vessels was, of course, proportionably small; the whole number of these vessels that arrived in American ports in the same year, from all the countries and places subject to the British crown, amounted to no more than 43,580 tons.

The ship-building of these States was greater in 1792 than in any former year. In 1788, the tonnage of merchant vessels amounted to 250,000 tons, and to 1,207,000, giving an increase of 957,000 tons, in 1808, exclusive of the tonnage of 91 vessels, constituting the naval force established subsequently to the former period.

The tonnage, according to the report of the secretary of the treasury, December 12, 1811, amounted to 984,269 tons, being an average annual decrease of the tonnage of 1808, of upwards of 74,000 tons, or of 222,731 tons for the three years intervening.

The net amount of revenue arising from duties, tonnage, light money, &c. was,

	Dollars.
In 1806 - - - - -	16,015,317
1807 - - - - -	16,492,889
1808 - - - - -	7,176,985
1809 - - - - -	7,138,676
1810 - - - - -	12,756,831

The amount of tonnage of vessels entered inwards for three quarters, ending October 1806, was - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 70,264
Do. three quarters, ending October 1813 1,985

Loss of tonnage 68,279

The number of sloops, schooners, and other vessels laid up and dismantled in the American harbours, on September 17, 1813, amounted to 640, including about 16 brigs.

The vessels of war are calculated, by the official report of May 1814, at 33 vessels for the ocean (including three seventy-fours, likely soon to be launched), carrying 947 guns, and 32 vessels for the lakes, carrying 265 guns, besides 263 gun-boats; amongst which it is not improbable that some of the above mercantile vessels have been adopted.

The fall of revenue from 16,000,000 to 7,000,000]

[in the years 1808 and 1809, as in the preceding statement, are attributable to the derangements of commerce, caused by the embargo; particularly as we find that in 1810, it rose again to nearly 13,000,000, notwithstanding the continuance of some restrictions and embarrassments in the way of importations.

The following was the increase of vessels in the trade of Quebec, which cleared from that port and from Montreal, in the under-mentioned years.

	Ships.	*Tons.*
1808 - - - - -	334	70,000
1809 - - - - -	434	87,000
1810 - - - - -	661	140,000
1811 - - - - -	552	116,000

It is evident from the above statements, that the British N. Americans were undoubtedly benefitted by the Orders in Council; this will appear more clearly, when, it is shewn, as by the subsequent tarif, how the tonnage between England and Quebec supported a steady rise in prices, whilst the mercantile shipping of the Americans lay useless and unemployed.

Tonnage between England and Quebec.

	£.	*s.*	*d.*		£.	*s.*	*d.*
1806 - - - - - from	4	15	0	to	5	5	0
1807 - - - - - from	5	0	0	to	5	15	0
1808 - - - - - from	7	0	0	to	7	10	0
1809 - - - - - from	8	0	0	to	8	10	0
1810 - - - - - from	7	0	0	to	9	0	0
1811 - - - - - from	8	0	0	to	9	0	0

It should thus appear, that whatever contributed to decrease the carrying trade of the United States, operated as a premium to British navigation: the latter has however been constantly and regularly encroached upon, in a ratio more than equal to the increasing tonnage of American shipping, in their intercourse with Great Britain; or, in other words, the shipments between the two countries have been progressively on the decline since January 1801, though England has, at the same time, amply compensated for the loss, by her naval communication with all other parts. This will be manifest by the following table, being]

[*An Account of the official Value of the* IMPORTS *from and* EXPORTS *to the* UNITED STATES *of* AMERICA, *for* 11 *Years, ending January* 5, 1812; *also the* NUMBER *and* TONNAGE *of* SHIPPING *employed between* GREAT BRITAIN *and* THOSE STATES, *and between* GREAT BRITAIN *and* ALL PARTS, *distinguishing the* British *from the* American, *and the* British *from the* Foreign *Shipping*.

Years.	Official Value of		Number and Tonnage of Shipping employed between Great Britain and the United States.																Ditto, between Great Britain and all Parts.					
			Entered Inwards.						Cleared Outwards.						Entered Inwards & Cleared Outwards.						Entered Inwards & Cleared Outwards.					
			British.		American.		Total.		British.		American.		Total.		British.		American.		Total.		British.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	2,706,518	7,517,531	131	25,970	723	159,412	854	185,382	141	29,252	718	158,916	859	188,168	272	55,222	1,441	318,328	1,713	373,550	20,629	2,724,241	11,123	1,585,035	31,752	4,309,276
1802	1,923,504	5,319,491	100	19,770	375	91,348	475	111,118	135	29,410	397	93,525	532	122,933	235	49,180	772	184,871	1,007	234,051	26,637	3,420,907	7,060	937,831	33,697	4,358,738
1803	1,914,098	5,272,812	135	30,638	483	115,427	618	146,065	89	21,090	472	111,857	561	132,947	224	51,728	955	227,284	1,179	279,012	23,239	3,073,652	7,926	1,212,524	31,165	4,286,176
1804	1,651,467	6,398,426	72	17,248	363	89,580	435	106,823	58	13,738	412	100,778	470	114,516	130	30,981	775	190,358	905	221,339	21,639	2,858,673	8,364	1,195,148	30,003	4,053,821
1805	1,766,556	7,146,765	72	16,420	427	110,111	499	126,531	52	13,208	452	111,786	504	124,994	124	29,628	879	221,897	1,003	251,525	23,022	2,989,499	8,449	1,297,704	31,471	4,287,203
1806	1,999,884	8,613,124	54	11,523	539	142,944	593	154,467	39	8,731	558	143,944	597	152,675	93	20,254	1,097	286,888	1,190	307,142	24,349	2,968,137	7,249	1,180,788	31,598	4,148,925
1807	2,847,522	7,921,120	84	18,229	653	171,814	737	190,043	38	8,332	706	185,385	744	191,717	122	26,561	1,359	355,199	1,481	381,760	22,641	2,860,770	7,933	1,424,103	30,574	4,172,824
1808	836,342	3,992,060	12	2,188	134	34,186	146	36,374	56	14,204	217	52,499	273	66,703	68	16,392	351	86,685	419	103,077	23,222	2,684,227	3,818	565,809	27,040	3,250,029
1809	2,205,331	5,187,615	44	10,302	616	153,911	660	164,213	51	11,474	473	116,206	524	127,680	95	21,776	1,089	270,117	1,184	291,893	25,155	3,070,725	9,452	1,459,037	34,607	4,529,762
1810	2,614,405	7,813,317	35	7,864	692	164,653	727	172,517	99	23,206	645	152,551	744	175,757	134	31,070	1,337	317,204	1,471	348,274	26,647	3,233,208	13,517	2,314,770	40,164	5,547,978
1811	2,309,415	1,431,829	75	18,184	390	110,694	465	128,878	8	2,394	398	111,777	406	114,171	83	20,578	788	222,471	871	243,049	25,682	3,030,045	6,566	1,379,412	32,248	4,409,457
1812*	1,294,152	4,135,592	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28,197	3,245,233	5,183	1,059,345	33,380	4,304,578

* The number of men usually employed in navigating the British shipping, Inwards and Outwards, was as follows; viz.

In 1791 117,315
1794 119,194
1800 143,354
1806 156,021
1812 165,030

The number of men actually employed in navigating the British and Foreign shipping, in 1812, were

In British shipping 100,687
Foreign shipping 26,680

Total 127,367

Total unemployed 37,663

Custom House, London, February 18, 1812.

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector General of Imports and Exports.

To E. WILLOUGHBY,
Reg. General.

N. B. The above Table was made out from sundry documents, furnished to Parliament by the two authorities here quoted.]

Military Strength.—Standing armies are deemed inconsistent with a republican government; the military strength of the United States consists therefore in its militia. As far back as the year 1790, the number was very considerable. The present efficient force is about 100,000, including regulars. Such an army, as to numbers, is extremely formidable, especially upon any attempt of a power to overrun these States; but it is by no means capable of coping on any thing like equal terms, with the well disciplined troops of Europe. At the beginning of the present year, 1814, it seemed to be the intention of the American government to carry the war into Canada, with the greatest possible vigour, and the bounty had risen, on this occasion, as high as £.30 a man. As 30,000 of Wellington's victorious troops are now (June 1814) on their passage to America, the bounty is probably much higher.

Religion.—The constitution of the United States provides against the making of any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise of it; and in the constitutions of the respective States, religious liberty is a fundamental principle. On this important point, this government is distinguished from almost every other. The people, as being at liberty to choose their own religion, are naturally much divided in their election. The bulk of them would denominate themselves Christians; a small proportion of them are Jews: some plead the sufficiency of natural religion, and reject revelation as unnecessary and fabulous; and many have yet their religion to choose.

The following denominations of Christians are more or less numerous in the United States, viz. Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Dutch Reformed Church, Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers or Friends, Methodists, Roman Catholics, German Lutherans, German Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, Mennonists, Universalists, and Shakers.

Of these the Congregationalists are the most numerous. In New England alone, besides those which are scattered through the Middle and Southern States, there were not less, in the year 1790, than 1000 congregations of this denomination, viz.

In New Hampshire	200
Massachusetts	440
Rhode Island	13
Connecticut	197
Vermont (say)	150
Total	1000

Which, according to the relative increase of population, would now amount to just double that number.

It is difficult to say what is the present ecclesiastical constitution of the Congregational churches. Formerly their ecclesiastical proceedings were regulated, in Massachusetts, by the Cambridge Platform of church discipline, established by the synod, in 1648; and in Connecticut, by the Saybrook Platform of discipline; but since the revolution, less regard has been paid to these constitutions, and in many instances they are wholly disused. Congregationalits are pretty generally agreed in this opinion, that "Every church or particular congregation of visible saints, in gospel order, being furnished with a pastor or bishop, and walking together in truth and peace, has received from the Lord Jesus full power and authority, ecclesiastical within itself, regularly to administer all the ordinances of Christ, and is not under any other ecclesiastical jurisdiction whatsoever." Their churches, with some exceptions, disclaim the word Independent, as applicable to them, and claim a sisterly relation to each other.

From the answer of the elders, and other messengers of the churches, assembled at Boston, in the year 1662, to the questions proposed to them by order of the general court, it appears that the churches, at that period, professed to hold communion with each other in the following acts, viz.

1. "In hearty care and prayer for one another. —2. In affording relief, by communicating of their gifts in temporal or spiritual necessities.— 3. In maintaining unity and peace, by giving account one to another of their public actions, when it is properly desired; to strengthen one another in their regular administrations; in particular by a concurrent testimony against persons justly censured.—4. To seek and accept help from, and afford help to each other, in case of divisions and contentions, whereby the peace of any church is disturbed; in matters of more than ordinary importance, as the ordination, installation, removal, and deposition of pastors or bishops; in doubtful and difficult questions and controversies, doctrinal or practical, that may arise; and for the rectifying of mal-administration, and healing of errors and scandals that are not healed among themselves.—5. In taking notice, with a spirit of love and faithfulness, of the troubles and difficulties, errors and scandals of another church, and in administering help (when the case manifestly calls for it) though they

[should so neglect their own good and duty, as not to seek it.—6. In admonishing one another, when there is cause for it; and after a due course of means, patiently to withdraw from a church, or peccant party therein, obstinately persisting in error or scandal."

A consociation of churches was, at the period mentioned, considered as necessary to a communion of churches, (the former being but an agreement to maintain the latter) and therefore a duty. The consociation of churches they defined to be, "Their mutual and solemn agreement to exercise communion in such acts as aforesaid (meaning the acts of communion above recited) amongst themselves, with special reference to those churches which, by Providence, are planted in a convenient vicinity, though with liberty reserved without offence, to make use of others, as the nature of the case, or the advantage of the opportunity may lead thereunto."

The ministers of the Congregational order are pretty generally associated for the purposes of licensing candidates for the ministry, and friendly intercourse and improvement; but there are few Congregational churches that are consociated on the above principles; and the practice has very generally gone into disuse, and with it the communion of churches in most of the acts before recited. In Connecticut and the *w.* parts of Massachusetts, the churches have deviated less from their original constitution. The degeneracy of the Congregational churches from that order, fellowship, and harmony, in discipline, doctrines, and friendly advice and assistance in ecclesiastical matters, which formerly subsisted between them, is considered matter of deep regret to many, not to say to most people of that denomination.

Congregationalists are divided in opinion respecting the doctrines of the gospel, and the proper subjects of its ordinances. The body of them are Calvinists; a respectable proportion are what may be denominated Hopkensian Calvinists; besides these, some are Arminians, some Arians, a few Socinians, and a number have adopted Dr. Chauncy's scheme of the final salvation of all men; but for a digested summary of the peculiar sentiments of each of these sects, the reader is referred to H. Adams's *View of Religions*.

Next to the Congregationalists, Presbyterians are the most numerous denomination of Christians in the United States. They have a constitution by which they regulate all their ecclesiascal proceedings, and a confession of faith, which all church officers and church members are required to subscribe. Hence they have preserved a singular uniformity in their religious sentiments, and have conducted their ecclesiastical affairs with a great degree of order and harmony.

The body of the presbyterians inhabit the Middle and Southern States, and are united under the same constitution. By this constitution, the Presbyterians who were governed by it, in 1790, were divided into five Synods and 17 Presbyteries; viz. Synod of New York, five presbyteries, 94 congregations, 61 settled ministers.—2. Synod of Philadelphia, five presbyteries, 92 congregations, 60 settled ministers, besides the ministers and congregations belonging to Baltimore presbytery.—3. Synod of Virginia, four presbyteries, 70 congregations, 40 settled ministers, exclusive of the congregations and ministers of Transylvania presbytery.—4. Synod of the Carolinas, three presbyteries, 82 congregations, 42 settled ministers, the ministers and congregations in Abington presbytery not included. If we suppose the number of congregations in the presbyteries which made no returns to their synods, to be 100, and the number of settled ministers in the same to be 40, the whole number of Presbyterian congregations in this connection would be 438, which were supplied by 223 settled ministers, and between 70 and 80 candidates, besides a number of ordained ministers who had no particular charges. With relation to the census of 1810, the above numbers will be about double. Each of the synods meet annually; besides which they have a joint meeting, by their commissioners, once a year, in General Assembly at Philadelphia.

The Presbyterian churches are governed by congregational, presbyterial, and synodical assemblies: these assemblies possess no civil jurisdiction. Their power is wholly moral or spiritual, and that only ministerial or declarative. They possess the right of requiring obedience to the laws of Christ, and of excluding the disobedient from the privileges of the church; and the powers requisite for obtaining evidence and inflicting censure; but the highest punishment, to which their authority extends, is to exclude the contumacious and impenitent from the congregation of believers.

The church session, which is the congregational assembly of judicatory, consists of the minister or ministers and elders of a particular congregation. This body is invested with the spiritual government of the congregation; and have power to inquire into the knowledge and christian conduct of all its members; to call]

[before them offenders and witnesses, of their own denomination; to admonish, suspend, or exclude from the sacraments, such as deserve these censures; to concert measures for promoting the spiritual interests of the congregation, and to appoint delegates to the higher judicatories of the church.

A presbytery consists of all the ministers, and one ruling elder from each congregation, within a certain district. Three ministers and three elders, constitutionally convened, are competent to do business. This body have cognizance of all things that regard the welfare of the particular churches within their bounds, which are not cognizable by the session. Also, they have a power of receiving and issuing appeals from the sessions —of examining and licensing candidates for the ministry; of ordaining, settling, removing, or judging ministers; of resolving questions of doctrine or discipline; of condemning erroneous opinions, that injure the purity or peace of the church; of visiting particular churches, to inquire into their state, and redress the evils that may have arisen in them; of uniting or dividing congregations, at the request of the people, and whatever else appertains to the spiritual concerns of the churches under their care.

A synod is a convention of several presbyteries. The synod have power to admit and judge of appeals, regularly brought up from the presbyteries; to give their judgment on all references made to them of an ecclesiastical kind; to correct and regulate the proceedings of presbyteries; to take effectual care that presbyteries observe the constitution of the church, &c.

The highest judicatory of the Presbyterian church is styled, the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America. This grand assembly is to consist of an equal delegation of bishops and elders from each presbytery within their jurisdiction, by the title of commissioners to the general assembly. Fourteen commissioners make a quorum. The general assembly constitute the bond of union, peace, correspondence, and mutual confidence among all their churches; and have power to receive and issue all appeals and references which may regularly be brought before them from inferior judicatories; to regulate and correct the proceedings of the synods, &c. To the general assembly also belongs the power of consulting, reasoning, and judging in controversies respecting doctrine and discipline; of reproving, warning, or bearing testimony against error in doctrine, or immorality in practice in any church, presbytery, or synod; of corresponding with foreign churches; of putting a stop to schismatical contentions and disputations; and in general of recommending and attempting reformation of manners, and of promoting charity, truth, and holiness in all the churches; and also of erecting new synods when they judge it necessary.

The confession of faith adopted by the Presbyterian church, embraces what are called the Calvinistic doctrines; and none who disbelieve these doctrines are admitted into fellowship with their churches. The general assembly of the Presbyterian church hold a friendly correspondence with the general association in Connecticut, by letter, and by admitting delegates from their respective bodies to sit in each other's general meetings.

Discontented with the churches of which we have been speaking, there are four small presbyteries in New England, who have a similar form of ecclesiastical government and discipline, and profess the same doctrines.

Besides these, there is the "Associate Presbytery of Pennsylvania," having a separate ecclesiastical jurisdiction in America, and belonging to the Associate Synod of Edinburgh, which they declare is the only ecclesiastical body, either in Britain or America, with which they are agreed concerning the doctrine and order of the church of Christ, and concerning the duty of confessing the truth, and bearing witness to it by a public testimony against the errors of the times. This connection is not to be understood as indicating subjection to a foreign jurisdiction; but is preserved for the sake of maintaining unity with their brethren in the profession of the Christian faith, and such an intercourse as might be of service to the interests of sectarians. This sect of Presbyterians are commonly known by the name of Seceders, on account of their seceding from the national church in Scotland, 1736. See H. Adams's *View of Religion*, article, Seceders.

The Dutch Reformed churches in the United States, who maintain the doctrine of the synod of Dort, held in 1618, were, in the year 1790, between 70 and 80 in number, constituting six classes, which form one synod, styled "The Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey." They may now be estimated at double that number. The classes consist of ministers and ruling elders; each class delegates two ministers and an elder to represent them in synod. From the first planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jersey, they have, under the direction of the classes of Amsterdam, been formed exactly]

[upon the plan of the established church of Holland as far as that is ecclesiastical. A strict correspondence is maintained between the Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey, and the Synod of North Holland and the classes of Amsterdam. The acts of their synods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in disputes respecting doctrinal points and church discipline.

The Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States (the churches of that denomination in New England excepted) met in convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and revised the book of Common Prayer, and administration of the sacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, with a view to render the liturgy consistent with the American Revolution. But this revised form was adopted by none of the churches, except one or two in Philadelphia.

In October 1789, at another meeting of their convention, a plan of union among all the Protestant Episcopal churches in the United States of America was agreed upon and settled; and an adequate representation from the several States being present, they again revised the book of Common Prayer, which is now published and generally adopted by their churches. They also agreed upon and published 17 canons for the government of their church, the first of which declares, that "there shall, in this church, be three orders in the ministry, viz. bishops, priests, and deacons."

At the same time they agreed upon a constitution, which provides that there shall be a general convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, on the second Tuesday of September, of every third year from 1789; that each State is entitled to a representation of both the clergy and laity, or either of them, and may send deputies, not exceeding four of each order, chosen by the convention of the State; that the bishops of the church, when three or more are present, shall, in their general conventions, form a separate house, with a right to originate and propose acts for the concurrence of the house of deputies, composed of clergy and laity; and with a power to negative acts passed by the house of deputies, unless adhered to by four-fifths of the other house; that every bishop shall confine the exercise of his episcopal office to his proper diocese or district; that no person shall be admitted to holy orders, until examined by the bishop and two presbyters, having produced the requisite testimonials; and that no person shall be ordained until he shall have subscribed the following declaration—"I do believe the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be the Word of God, and to contain all things necessary to salvation; and I do solemnly engage to conform to the doctrines and worship of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States."

They have not yet adopted any articles of religion other than those contained in the Apostles and Nicene Creeds. The number of Episcopal churches in the United States is not ascertained; in New England there were, in 1790, between 40 and 50; but in the Southern States, they were much more numerous. Four bishops, viz. Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, had been elected by the conventions of their respective States, and had been duly consecrated. The former by the bishops of the Scotch church; the three latter, by the bishops of the English church. And these four, in September 1792, united in the consecration of a fifth, elected by the convention of the State of Maryland.

The Baptists, with some exceptions, are upon the Calvinistic plan, as to doctrines, and independents as to church government and discipline. Except those who are styled "open communion baptists," of whom there is but one association, they refuse to communicate in the ordinance of the Lord's Supper with other denominations; because they hold that immersion only is the true baptism, and that baptism is necessary to communion; it is, therefore, improper and inconsistent, in their opinion, to admit unbaptized persons, (as all others are, in their view, but themselves) to join with them in this ordinance; though they allow ministers of other denominations to preach to their congregations, and sometimes to assist in ordaining their ministers.

From an account taken, in the year 1790, by a preacher, Mr. John Asplund, of the Baptist denomination, who had travelled through the United States, to ascertain their number and state, the following statement of their associations, churches, ministers, church members, and principles, has been given.]

STATES.	Churches.	MINISTERS ordained.	licensed.	Members.
[New Hampshire	32	23	17	1,732
Massachusetts	107	95	31	7,116
Rhode Island	38	37	39	3,502
Connecticut	55	44	21	3,214
Vermont	34	21	15	1,610
New York	57	53	30	3,987
New Jersey	26	20	9	2,279
Pennsylvania	28	26	7	1,231
Delaware	7	9	1	409
Maryland	12	8	3	776
Virginia	207	157	109	20,157
Kentucky	42	40	21	3,105
Western Territory	1	—	—	30
North Carolina	94	81	76	7,742
Deceded Territory	18	15	6	889
South Carolina	68	48	28	4,012
Georgia	42	33	9	3,184
Total	868	710	422	64,975

Of these there were

	Assoc.	Churches.	MINISTERS ordained.	licensed.	Members.
Six principle Baptists	1	18	26	4	1,599
Open Communion Ditto	1	15	13	4	1,714
General Provision Ditto	3	30	26	19	1,948
Seventh Day Ditto	—	10	13	3	887
Regular or Particular Ditto	30	795	632	392	58,827
Total	35	868	710	422	64,675

To this account, the compiler conjectured that 1,500 members, and 30 churches, ought to be added—making the whole number of churches about 900, and the members about 66,000. He supposes, moreover, that at least three times as many attend their meetings as have joined their churches, which, if we suppose all who attend their meetings are in principle Baptists, will make the whole number of that denomination in these States 198,000, or a twenty-sixth part of the inhabitants, at that period. Their increase, if only in proportion to the rest of the population, would, on an average, amount to 396,000.

Some of the leading principles of the regular or particular Baptists, are—The imputation of Adam's sin to his posterity—the inability of man to recover himself—effectual calling by sovereign grace—justification by the imputed righteousness of Christ—immersion for Baptism, and that on profession of faith and repentance—congregational churches, and their independency, and reception into them upon evidence of sound conversion.

We have next to speak of the people called Quakers. This denomination of Christians arose about the year 1648, and were first collected into religious societies by their highly respected elder, George Fox, who was brought before two justices in Derbyshire, and one of whom, scoffing at him, for having bidden him and those about him to tremble at the word of the Lord, gave to him and his followers the name of Quakers; a name by which they have since been usually denominated: but they themselves adopted the appellation of Friends. They came to America as early as 1656. The first settlers of Pennsylvania were all of this denomination; and the number of Friends' meetings in the United States, in 1793, was about 320, at present double.

Their doctrinal tenets may be summarily expressed, as follows: In common with other Christians, they believe in One Eternal God, and in Jesus Christ the Messiah and Mediator of the new covenant. To Christ alone, in whose divinity they believe, they give the title of the Word of God,]

[and not to the scriptures; yet they profess a high esteem for the sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit who indited them, and believe that they are able, through faith, to make wise to salvation. They reverence the excellent precepts of scripture, and believe them practicable and binding on every Christian: and that in the life to come, every man will be rewarded according to his works. In order to enable mankind to put in practice these precepts, they believe that every man coming into the world is endued with a measure of the Light, Grace, or Good Spirit of Christ; by which he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and correct the disorderly passions and corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome—that this divine grace is, to those who sincerely seek it, an all-sufficient and present help in time of need—and that by it the snares of the enemy are detected, his allurements avoided, and deliverance experienced, through faith in its effectual operation, and the soul translated out of the kingdom of darkness into the marvellous light and kingdom of the Son of God. Thus persuaded, they think this divine influence especially necessary to the performance of the highest act of which the human mind is capable, the worship of God in spirit and in truth; and therefore consider, as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the mind from the secret influence of this unction of the Holy One. Though true worship is not confined to time or place, they believe it is incumbent on churches to meet often together, but dare not depend for acceptance on a formal repetition of the words and experiences of others. They think it is their duty to wait in silence to have a true sight of their condition bestowed on them; and believe even a single sigh, arising from a sense of their infirmities and need of divine help, to be more acceptable to God, than any performances which originate in the will of man.

They believe the renewed assistance of the light and power of Christ, which is not at our command, nor attainable by study, but the free gift of God, to be indispensably necessary to all true ministry. Hence arises their testimony against preaching for hire, and conscientious refusal to support such ministry by tythes or other means. As they dare not encourage any ministry, but such as they believe to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit; so neither dare they attempt to restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex; but allow such of the female ex as appear to be qualified, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

They hold that as there is one Lord and one faith, so his Baptism is one in nature and operation, and that nothing short of it can make us living members of his mystical body; and that Baptism with water belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation. With respect to the Lord's Supper, they believe that communication between Christ and his church is not maintained by that nor any other external ordinance, but only by a real participation of his divine nature, through faith, that this is the supper alluded to, Rev. iii. 20—and that where the substance is attained, it is unnecessary to attend to the shadow.

Believing that the grace of God is alone sufficient for salvation, they can neither admit that it is conferred on a few only, while others are left without it; nor, thus asserting its universality, can they limit its operation to a partial cleansing of the soul from sin, even in this life. On the contrary, they believe that God doth vouchsafe to assist the obedient to submit to the guidance of his pure spirit, through whose assistance they are enabled to bring forth fruits unto holiness, and to stand perfect in their present rank.

As to oaths, they abide literally by Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all." They believe that "wars and fightings" are, in their origin and effects, utterly repugnant to the gospel, which still breathes peace and good-will to men. Though during the late war, some of their number, contrary to this article of their faith, thought it their duty to take up arms in defence of their country. This laid the foundation of a secession from their brethren, and they now form a separate congregation in Philadelphia, by the name of the "Resisting or fighting Quakers." They also are firmly persuaded, that if the benevolence of the gospel were generally prevalent in the minds of men, it would effectually prevent them from oppressing, much more from enslaving their brethren, of whatever complexion; and would even influence their treatment of the brute creation, which they would have no longer to groan the victims of avarice, or of the false ideas of pleasure. They profess that their principles, which inculcate submission to the laws in all cases wherein conscience is not violated, are a security to the salutary purposes of government. But they hold that the civil magistrate has no right to interfere in matters of]

religion, and think persecution, in any degree, unwarrantable. They reject the use of those names of the months and days, which, having been given in honour of the heroes, or gods of the heathen, originated in their flattery or superstition; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel or furniture, outward shews of rejoicing or mourning, and observations of days and times, they deem incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a Christian life; and they condemn public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world. They require no formal subscription to any articles, either as the condition of membership, or to qualify for the service of the church.

To effect the salutary purposes of discipline, monthly, quarterly, and yearly meetings, are established. A monthly meeting is composed of several neighbouring congregations. Its business is to provide for the subsistence of the poor, and for the education of their offspring—to judge of the sincerity and fitness of persons appearing to be convinced of the religious principles of the society, and desiring to be admitted to membership—to excite due attention to the discharge of religious and moral duties—to deal with disorderly members—to appoint overseers to see that the rules of their discipline are put in practice—to allow of marriages, &c. Their mode of marrying is as follows: Those who intend to marry, appear together, and propose their intention to the monthly meeting; and if not attended by their parents or guardians, produce a written certificate of their consent, signed in the presence of witnesses. The meeting then appoints a committee to inquire whether they are clear of other engagements respecting marriage; and if at a subsequent meeting, to which the parties also come and declare the continuance of their intention, no objections are reported, they have the meeting's consent to solemnize their intended marriage. This is done in a public meeting for worship, towards the close of which the parties stand up and solemnly take each other for husband and wife. A certificate of the proceedings is then publicly read, and signed by the parties, and afterwards by the relations and others as witnesses, which closes the solemnity.

A quarterly meeting is composed of several monthly meetings. At this meeting are produced written answers from monthly meetings, to certain questions respecting the conduct of their members, and the meeting's care over them. The accounts thus received, are digested and sent by representatives to the yearly meeting. Appeals from the judgment of monthly meetings are brought to the quarterly meetings.

The yearly meeting has the general superintendance of the society in the country in which it is established. But the yearly meeting is a misnoma; for the quakers have, in all, seven yearly meetings. One in London, to which come representatives from Ireland. The other six are in the United States. 1. New England. 2. New York. 3. New Jersey and Pennsylvania. 4. Maryland. 5. Virginia. 6. The Carolinas and Georgia. The business of these meetings is to give forth its advice—make such regulations as appear to be requisite, or excite to the observance of those already made, &c. Appeals from the judgment of quarterly meetings are here finally determined; and a brotherly correspondence, by epistles, is maintained with other yearly meetings.

As they believe women may be rightly called to the work of the ministry, they also think they may share in their Christian discipline. Accordingly they have monthly, quarterly, and yearly meetings of their own sex; held at the same time, and in the same place with those of the men; but separately, and without the power of making rules.

Their elders and ministers have meetings peculiar to themselves. These meetings, called Meetings of Ministers and Elders, are generally held in the compass of each monthly, quarterly, and yearly meeting—for the purposes of exciting each other to the discharge of their several duties—of extending advice to those who may appear weak, &c. They also, in the intervals of the yearly meetings, give certificates to those ministers who travel abroad in the work of the ministry.

The yearly meeting, held in London, 1675, appointed a meeting to be held in that city, for the purpose of advising or assisting in cases of suffering for conscience sake, called a meeting for sufferings, which is yet continued. It is composed of Friends under the name of Correspondents, chosen by the several quarterly meetings, who reside in and near the city. This meeting is entrusted with the care of printing and distributing books, and with the management of its stock, and considered as a standing committee of the yearly meeting. In none of

[their meetings have they a president, as they believe Divine Wisdom alone ought to preside; nor has any member a right to claim pre-eminence over the rest.

The Methodist denomination of Christians arose in England in 1739; and made their first appearance in America about the year 1770. Their general style is, "The United Societies of the Methodist Episcopal Church." They profess themselves to be "a company of men, having the form and seeking the power of godliness, united in order to pray together, to receive the word of exhortation, and to watch over one another in love, that they may help each other to work out their salvation." Each society is divided into classes of 12 persons; one of whom is syled the Leader, whose business it is to see each person in his class once a week, in order to inquire how their souls prosper, to advise, reprove, comfort, or exhort, as occasion may require; and to receive contributions for the relief of the Church and Poor. In order to admission into their societies they require only one condition, viz. "A desire to flee from the wrath to come, *i. e.* a desire to be saved from their sins." It is expected of all who continue in their societies, that they should evince their desire of salvation, by doing no harm, by avoiding all manner of evil, by doing all manner of good, as they have ability and opportunity, especially to the household of faith; employing them preferably to others, buying of one another (unless they can be served better elsewhere) and helping each other in business. And also by attending upon all the ordinances of God; such as public worship, the supper of the Lord, family and private prayer, searching the scriptures, and fasting or abstinence. The late celebrated Mr. John Wesley is considered as the father of this class of Methodists, who, as they deny some of the leading Calvinistic doctrines, and hold some of the peculiar tenets of Arminius, may be called Arminian Methodists. The famous Mr. Whitefield was the leader of the Calvinistic Methodists, who were numerous in England, and a few are in the different parts of the United States, who are patronized and supplied with ministers, by the late Lady Huntingdon.

In 1788, the number of Wesleian Methodists in the United States stood in the following manner:

Georgia	2,011
South Carolina	3,366
North Carolina	6,779
Virginia	14,356
Maryland	11,017
Delaware, Pennsylvania	1,998
New Jersey	1,751
New York	2,004
Total	43,282

Since this estimate of their numbers was taken, some few scattering societies have been collected in different parts of the New England States, and their numbers increased in other parts; so that in 1790, the whole connection amounted to 57,621. To superintend the Methodist connection in America, they had, in 1788, two bishops, 30 elders, and 50 deacons.

In Great Britain and Ireland, the whole number of persons in full connection with the Methodist Episcopal church, amounted, in 1790, to 71,568.

The whole number of Roman Catholics in the United States, in 1790, was estimated at about 50,000; one-half of which were in the State of Maryland. If, as is probable, their increase has kept pace with the increase of the population, the number may be now estimated at 100,000. Their peculiar and leading doctrines and tenets are too generally known to need a recital here. In 1790, the residence of their bishop was in Baltimore. Their congregations are large and respectable.

The German inhabitants in these States, who principally belong to Pennsylvania and New York, are divided into a variety of sects; the principal of which are, Lutherans, Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, and Mennonists. Of these the German Lutherans are the most numerous. Of this denomination, and the German Presbyterians or Calvinists, who are next to them in numbers, there were, in 1790, upwards of 60 ministers in Pennsylvania—and the former had 12, and the latter six, churches in the State of New York. Many of their churches are large and splendid, and in some instances furnished with organs. These two denominations live together in the greatest harmony, often preaching in each other's churches, and sometimes uniting in the erection of a church, in which they alternately worship. The number of these sects has probably also doubled.

The Moravians are a respectable body of Christians in these States. Of this denomination there were, in 1788, about 1,300 souls in]

[Pennsylvania; viz. at Bethlehem, between 5 and 600; which number since increased, in 1790, at Nazareth, to 450—at Litiz, to upwards of 300. Their other settlements, in the United States, were at Hope, in New Jersey, containing about 100 souls; and at Wachovia, on Yadkin river, North Carolina, containing six churches. Their numbers are now nearly doubled. Besides these regular settlements, formed by such only as are members of the brethrens' church, and live together in good order and harmony, there are in different parts of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New Jersey, and in the cities of Newport, (Rhode Island) New York, Philadelphia, Lancaster, York Town, &c. congregations of the Brethren, who have their own church and minister, and hold the same principles, and doctrinal tenets, and church rites and ceremonies, as the former, though their local situation does not admit of such particular regulations as are peculiar to the regular settlements.

They call themselves, "The United Brethren of the Protestant Episcopal Church." They are called Moravians, because the first settlers in the English dominions were chiefly emigrants from Moravia. These were the remnant and genuine descendants of the church of the ancient United Brethren, established in Bohemia and Moravia, as early as the year 1456. They left their native country to avoid persecution, and to enjoy liberty of conscience, and what they conceived to be true exercise of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other Protestant dominions, and were encouraged to settle among them, and were joined by many serious people of other dominions. They adhere to the Augustin Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by Protestant divines at the time of the Reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and presented at the diet of the empire at Ausburg; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal system of all the established Protestant churches. They retain the discipline of their ancient church, and make use of Episcopal ordination, which has been handed down to them in a direct line of succession for more than 300 years, as appears by David Crantz' History of "The ancient and modern United Brethren's Church, translated from the German, by the Rev. Benjamin La Trobe." London, 1780.

They profess to live in strict obedience to the ordinances of Christ, such as the observation of the Sabbath, Infant Baptism, and the Lord's Supper; and in addition to these, they practise the foot washing, the kiss of love, and the use of the lot.

They were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, which is their principal settlement in America, as early as 1741. Regularity, industry, ingenuity, and œconomy, are characteristics of these people.

The Tunkers are so called in derision, from the word *tunken, to put a morsel in sauce.* The English word that conveys the proper meaning of Tunkers is *sops* or *dippers.* They are also called Tumblers, from the manner in which they perform Baptism, which is by putting the person, while kneeling, head first under water, so as to resemble the motion of the body in the action of tumbling. The Germans sound the letters *t* and *b* like *d* and *p;* hence the words Tunkers and Tumblers, have been corruptly written Dunkers and Dumplers.

The first appearing of these people in America was in the fall of the year 1719, when about 20 familics landed in Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves in various parts of Pennsylvania. They are what are called General Baptists, and hold to general redemption and general salvation. They use great plainness of dress and language, and will neither swear, nor fight, nor go to law, nor take interest for the money they lend. They commonly wear their beards—keep the first day Sabbath, except one congregation—have the Lord's Supper with its ancient attendants of Love Feasts, with washing of feet, kiss of charity, and right hand of fellowship. They anoint the sick with oil for their recovery, and use the trine immersion, with laying on of hands and prayer, even while the person baptised is in the water. Their church government and discipline are the same with those of the English Baptists, except that every brother is allowed to speak in the congregation; and their best speaker is usually ordained to be their minister. They have deacons, deaconesses (from among their ancient widows) and exhorters, who are all licensed to use their gifts statedly. On the whole, notwithstanding their peculiarities, they appear to be humble, well-meaning Christians, and have acquired the character of the harmless Tunkers.

Their principal settlement is at Ephrata, sometimes called Tunkers Town, in Lancaster County, 60 miles westward of Philadelphia. It consisted, in 1790, of about 40 buildings, of which three were places of worship: one is called Sharon, and adjoins the sister's apartment as a chapel; another, belonging to the brother' apartment, is]

[called Bethany. To those the brethren and sisters resort, separately, to worship morning and evening, and sometimes in the night. The third is a common church, called Zion, where all in the settlement meet once a week for public worship. The Brethren have adopted the White Friars' dress, with some alterations; the sisters that of the nuns; and both like them have taken the vow of celibacy. All, however, do not keep the vow. When they marry, they leave their cells, and go among the married people. They subsist by cultivating their lands, by attending a printing office, a grist mill, a paper mill, an oil mill, &c. and the sisters by spinning, weaving, sewing, &c. They at first slept on board couches, but now on beds, and have otherwise abated much of their former severity. This congregation keep the seventh day Sabbath. Their singing is charming, owing to the pleasantness of their voices, the variety of parts, and the devout manner of performance. Besides this congregation at Ephrata, there were, in 1770, 14 others in various other parts of Pennsylvania, and some in Maryland. The whole, exclusive of those in Maryland, amounted to upwards of 2,000 souls.

The Mennonists derive their name from Menno Simon, a native of Witmars, in Germany, a man of learning, born in the year 1505, in the time of the Reformation by Luther and Calvin. He was a famous Roman Catholic preacher, till about the year 1531, when he became a Baptist. Some of his followers came into Pennsylvania from New York, and settled at German Town, as early as 1692. This is at present their principal congregation, and the mother of the rest. Their whole number, in 1770, in Pennsylvania, was upwards of 4,000, divided into 13 churches, and 42 congregations, under the care of 15 ordained ministers, and 53 licensed preachers.

The Mennonists do not, like the Tunkers, hold the doctrine of general salvation; yet like them, they will neither swear nor fight, nor bear any civil office, nor go to law, nor take interest for the money they lend, though many break this last rule. Some of them wear their beards; wash each others feet, &c. and all use plainness of speech and dress. Some have been expelled their society for wearing buckles in their shoes, and having pocket holes in their coats. Their church government is democratical. They call themselves the Harmless Christians, Revengeless Christians, and Weaponless Christians. They are Baptists rather in name than in fact; for they do not use immersion. Their common mode of baptism is this: the person to be baptized kneels; the minister holds his hands over him, into which the deacon pours water, which runs through upon the head of the person kneeling. After this, follow imposition of hands and prayer.

The denomination, stiled Universalists, though their schemes are very various, may properly enough be divided into two classes; viz. Those who embrace the scheme of Dr. Chauncey, exhibited in his book, entitled "The Salvation of all Men;" and the disciples of Mr. Winchester and Mr. John Murray.

A judicious summary of Dr. Chauncey's sentiments has been given in H. Adams's "View of Religions," article Universalists, as follows:

"That the scheme of revelation has the happiness of all mankind lying at bottom, as its great and ultimate end; that it gradually tends to this end; and will not fail of its accomplishment, when fully completed. Some, in consequence of its operation, as conducted by the Son of God, will be disposed and enabled, in this present state, to make such improvements in virtue, the only rational preparative for happiness, as that they shall enter upon the enjoyment of it in the next state. Others, who have proved incurable under the means which have been used with them in this state, instead of being happy in the next, will be awfully miserable; not to continue so finally, but that they may be convinced of their folly, and recovered to a virtuous frame of mind: and this will be the effect of the future torments upon many; the consequence whereof will be their salvation, they being thus fitted for it. And there may be yet other states, before the scheme of God may be perfected, and mankind universally cured of their moral disorders, and in this way qualified for, and finally instated in, eternal happiness. But however many states some of the individuals of the human species may pass through, and of however long continuance they may be, the whole is intended to subserve the grand design of universal happiness, and will finally terminate in it; insomuch, that the Son of God and Saviour of men will not deliver up his trust into the hands of the Father, who committed it to him, till he has discharged his obligations in virtue of it; having finally fixed all men in heaven, when God will be All in All."

The number of this denomination is not known, but it is undoubtedly large, since the doctrine is so worldly and convenient. The open advocates indeed of this scheme are few; though the num-]

ber is larger of such as embrace the doctrine of the salvation of all men, upon principles similar, but variously differing from those on which the above mentioned scheme is grounded.

The latter class of Universalists have a new scheme, differing essentially from that of the former, which they reject as inconsistent and absurd: and they cannot conceive how they who embrace it, can, "with any degree of propriety, be called Universalists, on Apostolic principles, as it does not appear that they have any idea of being saved by, or in, the Lord, with an everlasting, or with any salvation." Hence, according to Mr. Murray, in his "Letter to a Friend," page 40, 41, printed in Boston, 1791, they call them "Pharisaical Universalists, who are willing to justify themselves."

It is difficult to say what is the present scheme of the denomination of which we are now speaking; for they differ not only from all other Universalists, and from each other, but even from themselves at different periods. The reader, however, may form an idea of some of their tenets from what follows, collected from the letter just referred to. This letter, written by the head of the denomination, and professing to rectify mistakes respecting doctrines propagated under the Christian name—to give the character of a Consistent Universalist—and to acquaint the world with their real sentiments, we have reason to conclude, gives as true an account of their scheme as can be obtained.

From this letter it appears, "that they believe, that religion, of some sort or other, is a public benefit;" and that every person is at liberty, and is bound, to support what he conceives to be the true religion. That public worship on every first day of the week, is an incumbent duty on all real lovers of divine truth—that prayer, as it indicates trust in, and dependence on, God, is part of his worship. They believe that the deceiver, who beguiled Eve, and not our first parents themselves, did the deed which brought ruin and death on all the human race. That there are two classes of fallen sinners—the angels who kept not their first estate, and the human nature, deceived by the former, and apparently destroyed consequent thereon—that a just God, in the law given by Moses, has denounced death and the curse on every one who continueth not in all things, written in the book of the law to do them—but that the same God was manifested in the flesh as the head of every man, made under the law, to redeem them that are under the law, being made a curse for them—that he tasted death for every man, being a Saviour, not of a few only, but of all men—and that the declaration of this is the Gospel. They believe that when God denounces on the human race, woes, wrath, tribulation, death, damnation, &c. in the scriptures, he speaks in his legislative capacity, as the just God who will by no means clear the guilty—that when he speaks of mercy, grace, peace, of life as the gift of God, and salvation in whole or in part, he speaks in the character of the just God and Saviour—that the former is the language of the law; the latter is the language of the gospel.

Confession of sins—repentance, and supplications for mercy and forgiveness, make no part of their creed or worship.

They believe that the Prince of Peace came to save the human nature from the power and dominion of the devil, and his works—that he came to destroy the latter, that he might save the former. That "Sin is the work of the devil—that he is the worker and doer of whatever gives offence.—That Jesus, as the Saviour of the world, shall separate from his kingdom, both the evil worker and his evil works; the evil worker, in the character of goats—the evil works in the character of tares." They suppose that what is wicked in mankind, is represented by the evil seed sown by the evil one in human nature, and that "when the sower of the evil seed, and all the evil seed sown, shall be separated from the seed which God sowed, then the seed which is properly God's seed, will be like him who sowed it, pure and holy."

They consider all ordinances as merely shadows; yet they celebrate the Lord's Supper, by eating and drinking wine—and some of them suppose that every time they eat bread and drink wine, they comply with our Lord's injunction, "Do this in remembrance of me." Various other opinions prevail among them respecting this ordinance, and that of baptism. They "admit of but one baptism, the baptizer Jesus Christ; the elements made use of, the Holy Ghost and fire"—yet they are willing, in order to avoid contention, "to become all things to all men," and to baptize infants by sprinkling, or adults by immersion—or to omit these signs altogether, according as the opinions of parents may vary upon this subject. Some think it proper to dedicate their children to the Lord, by putting them into the arms of the minister, to be by him presented to Christ, to be baptized with his baptism, in the name of the Trinity; the minister at the same time to bless them in]

[the words in which God commanded Aaron and his sons to bless the children of Israel—"The Lord bless thee, &c." It appears, in short, that their notions respecting these ordinances are various, vague, and unsettled.

They believe in a judgment past, and a judgment to come—that the past judgment is either that in which the world was judged in the second Adam, according to the word of the Saviour, "Now is the judgment of this world—now is the prince of this world cast out, and judgment executed on them and on the whole human nature, according to the righteous judgment of God—or that which every man is to exercise upon himself, according to the words "judge yourselves and ye shall not be judged." "The judgment to come is that in which all who have not judged themselves—all unbelievers of the human race, and all the fallen angels, shall be judged by the Saviour; but these two characters, viz. unbelievers of the human race, and the fallen angels, shall be placed, the former on the right, the latter on the left hand of their Judge; the one under the denomination of sheep, for whose salvation the Saviour laid down his life—the other under the denomination of goats, who are the accursed, whose nature he passed by"—"The human nature" (i. e. the sheep or unbelievers of the human race) "as the offspring of the everlasting Father, and the ransomed of the Lord—shall be brought, by divine power, into the kingdom prepared for them, before the foundation of the world."—The other nature, (i. e. the goats, or fallen angels) "will be sent into the fire prepared for them *." From which it appears, that it is their opinion, that unbelievers of the human race, or sheep, and the fallen angels, or goats, will be the only classes of creatures concerned in the awards of the last judgment; and that the righteous, or believers in Christ, will not then be judged, having previously judged themselves. "But the rest of mankind," say they, "will be the subjects of this judgment, when our Saviour shall be revealed from heaven in flaming fire, taking vengeance on them that know not God, and obey not the gospel; and they shall then be punished with everlasting destruction from the presence of the Lord, and the glory of his power." Their inference from and exposition of this passage, are peculiar, and will serve to give the reader an idea of their manner of explaining other parallel passages of scripture. From this awful revelation of the Saviour, to take vengeance on them that know not God, and obey not the gospel, they infer this consequence, they shall then be made to know God, and obey the gospel." The everlasting destruction, from the presence of the Lord and the glory of his power, with which they shall be punished, they suppose is suffered by unbelievers, in consequence of the revelation of the everlasting destruction, previous to this awful period; and that they will suffer no punishment after it—for "it is not said," they say, "that they shall be everlastingly punished with destruction." They explain their idea of everlasting punishment and suffering the pain of eternal fire, thus, "Were it possible to find a culinary fire that never would be extinguished, but in the strictest sense of the word, was everlasting or eternal—should any member of the body pass through that burning flame, though but a moment of time had been thus spent in passing through; yet even in that moment, it would suffer the pain of eternal fire." But whether they believe it possible that there should be such a fire, or that unbelievers shall be doomed to suffer the punishment of eternal fire by thus passing through it, they do not declare.

They do not suppose that "all mankind will be on a level in the article of death, but that they who die in unbelief, will lie down in sorrow, and rise to the resurrection of damnation, or condemnation; and when the books shall be opened, and the dead, both small and great, shall be judged out of the things written in the books—every mouth shall be stopped, and all the world become guilty before God; and while conscious of guilt, but ignorant of a Saviour, they shall call on the rocks and mountains to fall on them to hide them from the wrath of the Lamb. But that in this judgment the judge is the Saviour—they will be judged by their own head;" and as the head of every man is Christ, all of course must be acquitted and saved.

Although they believe that the devil is the doer or worker of every thing that gives offence; yet they assert, that "all men at all times are sinners, and come short of the glory of God;"—but they believe that what Christ suffered, "was considered by the Great Lawgiver, as done and

* The reader will doubtless notice that the plural pronoun them, is several times used to express the singular noun human nature, and Prince of this world, as the human nature, &c. shall be brought into the kingdom prepared for them; the other nature will be sent into the fire prepared for them—the Prince of this world shall be cast out, and judgment be executed on them. This is a phraseology peculiar to this denomination, for the grammatical propriety of which the compiler does not hold himself responsible.]

[suffered by every man in his own person; and that every man is as much interested in what Christ, the second Adam, did, as they were in what the first Adam did"—thus believing, they consider God as just in being their Saviour, as he would have been in their eternal damnation.

The Consistent Universalist, "does not consider himself under the law any more than a woman considers herself under the direction or dominion of a husband that is dead and buried—nor is he afraid of death, being assured that Jesus hath abolished death, and left nothing of it but the shadow."

The Universalists of this denomination, in common with other Christians, profess themselves to be the advocates of piety, religion, and morality. They assert the duty of doing right as men—as members of civil society—and as Christians. "As mere men," they hold, that "they must follow nature, or they will sink beneath the level of the beasts of the field." And yet they assert, that "all the righteousness found in the best of mere human nature is but a filthy rag." That as members of civil society, they must submit to the laws; or, if thought too severe, they may avoid them by a removal from the state." That as Christians they must be under the direction of Christ, and do whatsoever he commands them; and these are his commandments, "that we believe in him, and love one another."

There are but few of this denomination of Universalists in the United States. Of these few, some are in Pennsylvania; some in different parts of New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire; but the body of them are in Boston, and Gloucester, in Massachusetts. They have several constituted churches, which are governed by an ecclesiastical constitution, formed in 1789, by a small convention of their ministers at Philadelphia.

There is a small and singular sect of Christians, called *Shakers*, which sprung up in 1774; when a few of this sect came from England to New York, and there being joined by a few others, they settled at Nisqueunia, above Albany, which is their principal settlement: a few others are scattered in different parts of the country.

The head of this party, while she lived, (for notwithstanding her predictions and assertions to the contrary, she died in 1784; and was succeeded by one James Whitaker, who also died in 1787,) was Anna Leese, styled the Elect Lady. Her followers asserted, that she was the woman spoken of in the 12th chapter of the Revelation, and that she spoke seventy-two tongues: and although these tongues were unintelligible to the living, she conversed with the dead who understood her language. They alleged also, that she was the mother of all the elect; that she travailed for the whole world—that no blessing could descend to any person but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being possessed of their sins, by their confessing and repenting of them, one by one, according to her direction. Joseph Meacham, who attained the reputation of a prophet among them, succeeded Whitaker as their leader.

Their leading doctrinal tenets, as given by one of their own denomination, are, "That the first resurrection is already come, and now is the time to judge themselves. That they have power to heal the sick, to raise the dead, and cast out devils. That they have a correspondence with angels, the spirits of the saints and their departed friends. That they speak with divers kind of tongues in their public assemblies. That it is lawful to practise vocal music with dancing in the Christian churches, if it be practised in praising the Lord. That their church is come out of the order of natural generation, to be as Christ was; and that those who have wives are as though they had none. That by these means heaven begins upon earth, and they thereby lose their earthly and sensual relation to Adam the first, and come to be transparent in their ideas, in the bright aud heavenly visions of God. That some of their people are of the number of the 144,000, who were redeemed from the earth, and were not defiled with women. That the word everlasting, when applied to the punishment of the wicked, means only a limited period, except in the case of those who fall from their church; and that for such there is no forgiveness, neither in this world nor that which is to come. That it is unlawful to swear, game, or use compliments—and that water baptism and the Lord's Supper are abolished. That Adam's sin is not imputed to his posterity—and that the doctrines of election and reprobation are to be rejected."

The discipline of this denomination is founded on the supposed perfection of their leaders. The Mother, or the Elect Lady, it is said, obeys God through Christ. European elders obey her. American labourers, and common people, obey them; while confession is made of every secret thing, from the oldest to the youngest. The people are made to believe that they are seen through]

[and through in the gospel glass of perfection, by their teachers, who behold the state of the dead, and innumerable worlds of spirits good and bad.

These people are generally instructed to be very industrious, and to bring in according to their ability, to keep up the meeting. They vary in their exercises. Their heavy dancing, as it is called, is performed by a perpetual springing from the house floor, about four inches up and down, both in the men's and women's apartment, moving about with extraordinary transport, singing sometimes one at a time, sometimes more, making a perfect charm.

This elevation affects the nerves, so that they have intervals of shuddering, as if they were in a strong fit of the ague. They sometimes clap hands and leap so as to strike the joists above their heads. They throw off their outside garments in these exercises, and spend their strength very cheerfully this way. Their chief speaker often calls for attention; when they all stop and hear some harangue, and then fall to dancing again. They assert that their dancing is the token of the great joy and happiness of the new Jerusalem state, and denotes the victory over sin. One of the postures, which increases among them, is turning round very swift for an hour or two. This, they say, is to show the great power of God.

They sometimes fall on their knees and make a sound like the roaring of many waters, in groans and cries to God, as they say, for the wicked world who persecute them. A larger account may be seen in H. Adams's *View of Religions;* article *Shakers*.

The Jews are not numerous in the United States. They have synagogues at Savannah, Charleston (S. Carolina), Philadelphia, New York, and Newport. Besides those who reside at these places, there are others scattered in different towns in the United States.

The Jews in Charleston, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have these:—after the funeral dirge is sung, and just before the corpse is deposited in the grave, the coffin is opened, and a small bag of earth, taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceased; then some powder, said to be earth brought from Jerusalem, and carefully kept for this purpose, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpse, in token of their remembrance of the Holy Land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time. Whether this custom is universal among the Jews, is uncertain; but for the articles of their faith, &c. see H. Adams's *View of Religions;* article *Jews*, p. 290: also Bellamy's *History of all Religions;* London.

They generally expect a glorious return to the Holy Land, when they shall be exalted above all the nations of the earth. And they flatter themselves that the period of their return will speedily arrive, though they do not venture to fix the precise time.

The whole number of persons who profess the Jewish religion, in all parts of the world, they suppose to be about 3,000,000, who, as their phrase is, are witnesses of the unity of God in all the nations in the world.

Besides the religious sects enumerated, there are a few of the German inhabitants in Pennsylvania, who are styled Swinseildians, and, in Maryland, a small number called Nicolaites, or New Quakers; but with the distinguishing sentiments of these sects we are not acquainted.

History.—In addition to what has been elsewhere said of the discovery and settlement of N. America, we shall here give a brief history of the late war with Great Britain, with a sketch of the events which preceded and prepared the way for the revolution. This general view of the history of the United States will serve as a suitable introduction to the particular histories of the several states, which are given in their proper places.

America was originally peopled by uncivilized nations, who lived mostly by hunting and fishing. The Europeans, who first visited these shores, treating the natives as wild beasts of the forest, which have no property in the woods where they roam, planted the standard of their respective masters, where they first landed, and in their names claimed the country by right of discovery. Prior to any settlement in N. America, numerous titles of this kind were acquired by the English, French, Spanish, and Dutch navigators, who came hither for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives. Slight as such titles were, they were afterwards the causes of contention between the European nations. The subjects of different princes often laid claim to the same tract of country, because both had discovered the same river or promontory; or because the extent of their respective claims was undetermined.

While the settlements in this vast uncultivated country were inconsiderable and scattered, and the trade of it confined to the bartering of a]

few trinkets for furs, a trade carried on by a few adventurers, the interfering of claims produced no important controversy among the settlers or the nations of Europe. But in proportion to the progress of population, and the growth of the American trade, the jealousies of the nations, which had made early discoveries and settlements on this coast, were alarmed; ancient claims were revived; and each power took measures to extend and secure its own possessions at the expense of a rival.

By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the English claimed a right of cutting logwood in the Bay of Campeachy, in S. America. In the exercise of this right, the English merchants had frequent opportunities of carrying on a contraband trade with the Spanish settlements on the continent. To remedy this evil, the Spaniards resolved to annihilate a claim, which, though often acknowledged, had never been clearly ascertained. To effect this design they captured the English vessels, which they found along the Spanish main, and many of the British subjects were doomed to work in the mines of Potosi.

Repeated severities of this kind at length, 1739, produced a war between England and Spain. Porto Bello was taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Vernon. Commodore Anson, with a squadron of ships, sailed to the S. Seas, distressed the Spanish settlements on the *w.* shore of America, and took a galleon laden with immense riches. But in 1741, a formidable armament, destined to attack Carthagena, under the command of Lord Cathcart, returned unsuccessful, with the loss of upwards of 12,000 British soldiers and seamen; and the defeat of the expedition raised a clamour against the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, which produced a change in the administration. This change removed the scene of war to Europe, so that America was not immediately affected by the subsequent transactions, except that Louisburgh, the principal fortress of Cape Breton, was taken from the French by General Pepperell, assisted by Commodore Warren and a body of New England troops.

This war was ended in 1748, by the treaty of peace signed at Aix la Chapelle, by which restitution was made, on both sides, of all places during the war.

Peace however was of short duration. The French possessed Canada, and had made considerable settlements in Florida, claiming the country on both sides of the Mississippi, by right of discovery. To secure and extend their claims, they established a line of forts from Canada to Florida. They had secured the important pass at Niagara, and erected a fort at the junction of the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, called Fort Du Quesne. They took pains to secure the friendship and assistance of the natives; encroachments were made upon the English possessions, and mutual injuries succeeded. The disputes among the settlers in America, and the measures taken by the French to command all the trade of the St. Lawrence River on the *n.* and of the Mississippi on the *s.* excited a jealousy in the English nation, which soon broke forth in open war.

The next year three other expeditions were undertaken in America against the French. One was conducted by General Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from their encroachments on the province of Nova Scotia. This expedition was attended with success. General Johnson was ordered, with a body of troops, to take possession of Crown Point, but he did not succeed. General Shirley commanded an expedition against the fort at Niagara, but lost the season by delay.

In 1755, General Braddock marched against Fort Du Quesne, but in penetrating through the wilderness, he incautiously fell into an ambuscade, and suffered a total defeat. General Braddock was killed, but the enemy not pursuing the vanquished across the river, being eager in plundering the baggage of the dead, a part of his troops were saved by flight under the conduct of General Washington, at that time a colonel, who then began to exhibit proofs of those military talents, by which he afterwards conducted the armies of America to victory, and his country to independence.

The ill success of these expeditions left the English settlements in America exposed to the depredations of both the French and Indians. But the war now raged in Europe and the E. Indies, and engaged the attention of both nations in those quarters.

It was not until the campaign in 1758, that affairs assumed a more favourable aspect in America. But upon a change of administration, Mr. Pitt was appointed prime minister, and the operations of war became more vigorous and successful. General Amherst was sent to take possession of Cape Breton; and after a warm siege, the garrison of Louisburgh surrendered by capitulation. General Forbes was successful in taking possession of Fort Du Quesne, which the French thought fit to abandon. But General

[Abercrombie, who commanded the troops destined to act against the French at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, attacked the lines at Ticonderoga, and was defeated with a terrible slaughter of his troops. After his defeat, he returned to his camp at Lake George.

The next year, more effectual measures were taken to subdue the French in America. General Prideaux and Sir William Johnson began the operations of the campaign by taking the French fort near Niagara. General Amherst took possession of the forts at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, which the French had abandoned.

But the decisive blow which proved fatal to the French interest in America, was the defeat of the French army, and the taking of Quebec, by the brave General Wolfe. This hero was slain in the beginning of the action on the plains of Abram, and Monsieur Montcalm, the French commander, likewise lost his life. The loss of Quebec was soon followed by the capture of Montreal, by General Amherst, and Canada has remained ever since in possession of the English.

Colonel Grant, in 1761, defeated the Cherokees in Carolina, and obliged them to sue for peace. The next year Martinico was taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton; and also the island of Grenada, St. Vincents, and others. The capture of these was soon followed by the surrender of the Havannah, the capital of the island of Cuba.

In 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, between Great Britain, France, and Spain; by which the English ceded to the French several islands which they had taken from them in the W. Indies, but were confirmed in the possession of all N. America on this side the Mississippi, except the island of Orleans.

But this war, however brilliant the successes and glorious the event, proved the cause of great and unexpected misfortunes to Great Britain. Engaged with the combined powers of France and Spain, during several years, her exertions were surprising and her expense immense. To discharge the debts of the nation, the parliament was obliged to have recourse to new expedients for raising money. Previous to the last treaty in 1763, the parliament had been satisfied to raise a revenue from the American colonies by a monopoly of their trade.

It will be proper here to observe, that there were four kinds of government established in the British American colonies. The first was a charter government, by which the powers of legislation were vested in a governor, council, and assembly, chosen by the people. Of this kind were the governments of Connecticut and Rhode Island. The second was a proprietary government, in which the proprietor of the province was governor; although he generally resided abroad, and administered the government by a deputy of his own appointment; the assembly only being chosen by the people. Such were the governments of Pennsylvania and Maryland; and originally of New Jersey and Carolina. The third kind was that of royal government, where the governor and council were appointed by the crown, and the assembly by the people. Of this kind were the governments of New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, (after the year 1702) Virginia, the Carolinas, after the resignation of the proprietors, in 1728, and Georgia. The fourth kind was that of Massachusetts, which differed from all the rest. The governor was appointed by the king; so far it was a royal government; but the members of the council were elected by the representatives of the people. The governor, however, had a right to negative a certain number, but not to fill up vacancies thus occasioned. This variety of governments created different degrees of dependence on the crown. In the royal government, to render a law valid, it was constitutionally required that it should be ratified by the king; but the charter governments were empowered to enact laws and no ratification by the king was necessary. It was only required that such laws should not be contrary to the laws of England. The charter of Connecticut is express to this purpose.

Of the proceedings of all these governments those of Massachusetts were perhaps the most interesting; as giving the best leading features of the state of political influence prevalent throughout the colonies previously to, and about the period of, their separation. A diffuse account of the transactions that took place is therefore given under the article MASSACHUSETTS.

At the beginning of the war with France, commissioners from many of the colonies had assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed by deputies from the several colonies, which, with a general governor to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for the common safety, and to raise money for the execution of their designs. This proposal was not relished by the British ministry; but in place of this plan, it was proposed, that the governors of the colonies, with the assistance of one or two of their council, should assemble and concert measures for the]

[general defence; erect forts, levy troops, and draw on the treasury of England for monies that should be wanted; but the treasury to be reimbursed by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the English parliament. To this plan, which would imply an avowal of the right of parliament to tax the colonies, the provincial assemblies objected with unshaken firmness. It seems therefore that the British parliament, before the war, had it in contemplation to exercise the right they claimed of taxing the colonies at pleasure, without permitting them to be represented. Indeed it is obvious that they laid hold of the alarming situation of the colonies, about the year 1754 and 1755, to force them into an acknowledgment of the right, or to the adoption of measures that might afterwards be drawn into precedent. The colonies, however, with an uncommon foresight and firmness, defeated all their attempts. The war was carried on by requisitions on the colonies for supplies of men and money, or by voluntary contributions.

But no sooner was peace concluded, than the English parliament resumed the plan of taxing the colonies; and to justify their attempts, said, that the money to be raised, was to be appropriated to defray the expense of defending them in the late war.

The first attempt to raise a revenue in America appeared in the memorable Stamp Act, passed March 22, 1765; by which it was enacted, that certain instruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. should not be valid in law, unless drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid. When this bill was brought in, Mr. Charles Townsend concluded a speech in its favour, with words to the following effect: "And now, will these Americans, children planted by our care, nourished up by our indulgence, till they are grown to a degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under?" To which Colonel Barre replied, "They planted by your care! No, your oppressions planted them in America. They fled from tyranny to a then uncultivated and unhospitable country, where they exposed themselves to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable; and among others to the cruelty of a savage foe, the most subtle, and I will take upon me to say, the most formidable of any people upon the face of God's earth; and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all hardships with pleasure, compared with those who suffered in their own country, from the hands of those who should have been their friends. They nourished up by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department and another, who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them. Men whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused the blood of those sons of liberty to recoil within them. Men promoted to the highest seats of justice, some, who to my knowledge were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of a court of justice in their own. They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted a valour amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded all its little savings to your emolument; and believe me, remember I this day told you so, that the same spirit of freedom which actuated that people at first, will accompany them still: but prudence forbids me to explain myself farther. God knows, I do not at this time speak from any motives of party heat; what I deliver are the genuine sentiments of my heart. However superior to me in general knowledge and experience, the respectable body of this house may be, yet I claim to know more of America than most of you, having seen and been conversant in that country. The people, I believe, are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has, but a people jealous of their liberties, and who will vindicate them if ever they should be violated: but the subject is too delicate. I will say no more."

No sooner was this act published in America, than it raised a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehension at an act which they supposed to be an attack on their constitutional rights. The colonies petitioned the king and parliament for a redress of the grievance, and formed associations for the purpose of preventing the importation and use of British manufactures, until the act should be repealed. This spirited and unanimous opposition of the Americans produced the desired effect; and on March 18, 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with universal joy, and the trade between them and Great Britain was renewed on the most liberal footing.]

[The parliament, by repealing this act so obnoxious to their American brethren, did not intend to lay aside the scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies, but merely to change the mode. Accordingly, the next year, they passed an act, laying a certain duty on glass, tea, paper, and painters colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. [We must be here excused, if entering into some recapitulation of the text of Alçedo.] This act kindled the resentment of the Americans, and excited a general opposition to the measure; so that parliament thought proper, in 1770, to take off these duties, leaving only three-pence a pound on tea. Yet this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealousy of the colonists, and their opposition to parliamentary taxation continued and increased.

But it must be remembered that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the sole, nor principal cause of the opposition; it was the principle, which, once admitted, would have subjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being represented. The right, abstractly considered, was denied; and the smallest attempt to establish the claim by precedent, was uniformly resisted. The Americans could not be deceived as to the views of parliament; for the repeal of the Stamp Act was accompanied with an unequivocal declaration, "that the parliament had a right to make laws of sufficient validity, to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

The colonies therefore entered into measures to encourage their own manufactures, and home productions, and to retrench the use of foreign superfluities; while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, and in Massachusetts, the governors and people were in a state of continual warfare. Assemblies were repeatedly called, and suddenly dissolved. While sitting, the assemblies employed the time in stating grievances and framing remonstrances. To inflame these discontents, an act of parliament was passed, ordaining that the governors and judges should receive their salaries of the crown; thus making them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removable only at the pleasure of the king.

These arbitrary proceedings, with many others not here mentioned, but which may be seen in an enumeration of grievances in the Act of Independence, and in a variety of petitions to the king and parliament, could not fail of producing a rupture.

On the second of March, a fray took place in Boston, near Mr. Gray's rope-walk, between a private soldier of the 29th regiment, and an inhabitant. The former was supported by his comrades, the latter by the rope-makers, till several on both sides were involved in the consequences. On the fifth a more dreadful scene was presented. The soldiers, when under arms, were pressed upon, insulted, and pelted by a mob, armed with clubs, sticks, and snow-balls covering stones. They were also dared to fire. In this situation, one of the soldiers who had received a blow, in resentment fired at the supposed aggressor. This was followed by a single discharge from six others. Three of the inhabitants were killed, and five were dangerously wounded. The town was immediately in commotion. Such was the temper, force, and number of the inhabitants, that nothing but an engagement to remove the troops out of the town, together with the advice of moderate men, prevented the townsmen from falling on the soldiers. The killed were buried in one vault, and in a most respectful manner, in order to express the indignation of the inhabitants at the slaughter of their brethren, by soldiers quartered among them, in violation of their civil liberties. Captain Preston, who commanded the party which fired on the inhabitants, was committed to jail, and afterwards tried. The captain, and six of the men, were acquitted. Two were brought in guilty of manslaughter. It appeared on the trial, that the soldiers were abused, insulted, threatened, and pelted, before they fired. It was also proved, that only seven guns were fired by the eight prisoners. These circumstances induced the jury to make a favourable verdict. The result of the trial reflected great honour on John Adams, and Josiah Quincy, Esqrs. the council for the prisoners; and also on the integrity of the jury, who ventured to give an upright verdict, in defiance of popular opinions.

The consequences of this tragical event sunk deep in the minds of the people, and were made subservient to important purposes. The anniversary of it was observed with great solemnity for 13 years. Eloquent orators were successively employed to deliver an annual oration to preserve the remembrance of it fresh in their minds. On these occasions the blessings of liberty, the horrors of slavery, the dangers of a standing army, the rights of the colonies, and a variety of such topics, were represented to the public view under their most pleasing and alarm-]

[ing forms. These annual orations administered fuel to the fire of liberty, and kept it burning, with an incessant flame.

In 1773, the spirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The Gaspee, an armed schooner belonging to his Britannic Majesty, had been stationed at Providence, in Rhode Island, to prevent smuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to that degree, that about 200 armed men entered the vessel at night, compelled the officers and men to go ashore, and set fire to the schooner. A reward of £500, offered by government for apprehending any of the persons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual discovery.

About this time the discovery and publication of some private confidential letters, written by the royal officers in Boston, to persons in office in England, served to confirm the apprehensions of the Americans with respect to the designs of the British government. It was now made obvious that more effectual measures would be taken to establish the supremacy of the British parliament over the colonies. The letters recommended decisive measures, and the writers were charged, by the exasperated Americans, with betraying their trust and the people they governed.

As the resolutions of the colonies not to import or consume tea, had, in a great measure, deprived the English government of a revenue from this quarter, the parliament formed a scheme of introducing tea into America, under cover of the East India Company. For this purpose an act was passed, enabling the Company to export all sorts of teas, duty free, to any place whatever. The Company departed from their usual mode of doing business, and became their own exporters. Several ships were freighted with teas, and sent to the American colonies, and factors were appointed to receive and dispose of their cargoes.

The Americans, determined to oppose the revenue system of the English parliament in every possible shape, considered the attempt of the E. India Company to evade the resolutions of the colonies, and dispose of teas in America, as an indirect mode of taxation, sanctioned by the authority of parliament. The people assembled in various places, and in the large commercial towns, took measures to prevent the landing of the teas. Committees were appointed, and armed with extensive powers to inspect merchants books, to propose tests, and to make use of other expedients to frustrate the designs of the E. India Company. The same spirit pervaded the people from New Hampshire to Georgia. In some places, the consignees of the teas were intimidated so far as to relinquish their appointments, or to enter into engagements not to act in that capacity. The cargo sent to S. Carolina was stored, the consignees being restrained from offering the tea for sale. In other provinces, the ships returned back without discharging their cargoes.

It was otherwise in Massachusetts. The tea ships destined for the supply of Boston were consigned to the son, cousins, and particular friends of Governor Hutchinson. When they were called upon to resign, they answered, "That it was out of their power." The collector refused to give a clearance, unless the vessels were discharged of dutiable articles. The governor refused to give a pass for the vessels, unless properly qualified from the custom-house. The governor likewise requested Admiral Montague to guard the passages out of the harbour, and gave orders to suffer no vessels, coasters excepted, to pass the fortress, from the town, without a pass signed by himself. From a combination of these circumstances, the return of the tea vessels from Boston was rendered impossible. The inhabitants then had no alternative, but to prevent the landing of the tea, or to suffer it to be landed, and depend on the unanimity of the people not to purchase it, or to destroy the tea, or to suffer a deep laid scheme against their sacred liberties to take effect. The first would have required incessant watching by night, as well as by day, for a period of time, the duration of which no one could compute. The second would have been visionary to childishness, by suspending the liberties of a growing country, on the self-denial and discretion of every tea-drinker in the province. They viewed the tea as a vehicle of an unconstitutional tax, and as inseparably associated with it. To avoid the one they resolved to destroy the other. About 17 persons, dressed as Indians, repaired to the tea ships, broke open 342 chests of tea, and without doing any other damage, discharged their contents into the water.

No sooner did the news of this destruction of the tea reach Great Britain, than the parliament determined to punish that devoted town. On the King's laying the American papers before them, a bill was brought in and passed, to "discontinue the landing and discharging, lading and shipping of goods, wares, and merchandises, at the town of Boston, or within the harbour."

This act passed March 25, 1774, and called the Boston Port Bill, threw the inhabitants into]

[the greatest consternation. The town of Boston passed a resolution, expressing their sense of this oppressive measure, and a desire that all the colonies would concur to stop all importations from Great Britain. Most of the colonies entered into spirited resolutions on this occasion, to unite with Massachusetts in a firm opposition to the severe measures of the parliament. The first of June, the day on which the Port Bill was to take place, was appointed to be kept as a day of humiliation, fasting, and prayer throughout the colonies, to seek the Divine direction and aid, in that critical and gloomy juncture of affairs.

It ought here to be observed, that this rational and pious custom of observing fasts in times of distress and impending danger, and of celebrating days of public thanksgiving, after having received special tokens of Divine favour, has ever prevailed in New England, since its first settlement, and in some parts of other States.

During the height of the consternation and confusion which the Boston Port Bill occasioned, and at the very time when a town meeting was sitting to consider of it, General Gage, who had been appointed to the government of Massachusetts, arrived in the harbour. His arrival, however, did not allay the popular ferment, or check the progress of the measures then taking, to unite the colonies in opposition to the oppressive acts of parliament. He was received with all the honours usual on such occasions.

But the Port Bill was not the only act that alarmed the apprehensions of the Americans. Determined to compel the province of Massachusetts to submit to their laws, parliament passed an act for "The better regulating government in the province of Massachusetts Bay." The object of this act was to alter the government, as it stood on the charter of King William; and to make the judges and sheriffs dependent on the king, and removable at his will and pleasure.

This act was soon followed by another, which ordained that any person, indicted for murder, or other capital offence, committed in aiding the magistrates in executing the laws, might be sent by the governor, either to any other colony, or to Great Britain, for his trial.

This was soon followed by the Quebec Bill, which extended the bounds of that province, and granted many privileges to the Roman Catholics. The object of this bill was, to secure the attachment of that province to the crown of England, and prevent its joining the colonies in their resistance of the laws of parliament.

But these measures did not intimidate the Americans. On the other hand, they served to confirm their former apprehensions of the evil designs of government, and to unite the colonies in their opposition. A correspondence of opinion with respect to the unconstitutional acts of parliament, produced an uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in a proposition for holding a congress, by deputation from the several colonies, in order to concert measures for the preservation of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia, October 26, 1774.

In this first congress, the proceedings were cool, deliberate, and loyal; but marked with unanimity and firmness. Their first act was a declaration or statement of their claims as to the enjoyment of all the rights of British subjects, and particularly that of taxing themselves exclusively, and of regulating the internal police of the colonies. They also drew up a petition to the king, complaining of their grievances, and praying for a repeal of the unconstitutional and oppressive acts of parliament. They signed an association to suspend the importation of British goods, and the exportation of American produce, until their grievances should be redressed. They sent an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former of which they enumerated the oppressive steps of parliament, and called on their British brethren not to aid the ministry in enslaving their American subjects; and in the latter they endeavoured to confirm the people in a spirited and unanimous determination to defend their constitutional rights.

In the mean time every thing in Massachusetts wore the appearance of opposition by force. A new council for the governor had been appointed by the crown. New judges were appointed, and attempted to proceed in the execution of their office; but the juries refused to be sworn under them. In some counties, the people assembled to prevent the courts from proceeding to business; and in Berkshire they succeeded, setting an example of resistance that was afterwards followed, in violation of the laws of the State.

In this situation of affairs, the day for the annual muster of the militia approached. General Gage, apprehensive of some violence, had the precaution to seize the magazines of ammunition and stores at Cambridge and Charlestown, and lodged them in Boston. This measure, with the fortifying of the neck of land which joins Boston to the main land at Roxbury, caused an universal alarm and ferment.]

[On this occasion, an assembly of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk County was called; the several spirited resolutions were agreed to. These resolutions were prefaced with a declaration of allegiance; but they breathed a spirit of boldness peculiar to the known character of the delegates. They declared that the late acts of parliament, and the proceedings of General Gage, were glaring infractions of their rights and liberties, which their duty called them to defend by all lawful means.

This assembly remonstrated against the fortification of Boston Neck, and against the Quebec Bill; and resolved upon a suspension of commerce, an encouragement of arts and manufactures, the holding of a Provincial Congress, and a submission to the measures which should be recommended by the Continental Congress. They recommended that the collectors of taxes should not pay any money into the treasury without further orders; they also recommended peace and good order, giving it to be understood that they meant to act merely upon the defensive.

In answer to their remonstrance, General Gage assured them that he had no intention to prevent the free egress and regress of the inhabitants to and from the town of Boston, and that he would not suffer any person under his command to injure the person or property of any of his majesty's subjects.

Previous to this, a general assembly had been summoned by the governor to meet at Salem; and notwithstanding the writs had been countermanded by the governor's proclamation, on account of the violence of the times, and the resignation of several of the new counsellors, yet in defiance of the proclamation, 90 of the newly-elected members met at the time and place appointed; and soon after resolved themselves into a Provincial Congress and adjourned to Concord, 19 miles from Boston, and after choosing Mr. Hancock president, proceeded to business.

The Congress addressed the governor with a rehearsal of their distresses, and took the necessary steps for defending the principles they had adopted. They regulated the militia, made provision for supplying the treasury and furnishing the people with arms; who, eager for change, listened with enthusiasm to the recommendations of the Provincial Congress.

General Gage was incensed at these measures. He declared in his answer to the address, that Britain could never harbour the black design of enslaving her subjects, and published a proclamation, in which he insinuated that such proceedings amounted to rebellion. He also ordered barracks to be erected for the soldiers; but he found difficulty in procuring labourers, either in Boston or New York.

In the beginning of 1775, the fishery bills were passed in parliament, by which the colonies were prohibited to trade with Great Britain, Ireland, or the W. Indies, or take fish on the banks of Newfoundland.

The effects intended to be produced by these acts of parliament, especially with regard to the town of Boston, were in a great measure counteracted by the large supplies of provision furnished by the inhabitants of different towns from New Hampshire to Georgia, and shipped to the relief of the sufferers.

Preparations began to be made, to oppose by force the execution of these acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the use of arms; great encouragement was given for the manufacture of gunpower, and measures were taken to obtain all kinds of military stores.

In February, Colonel Leslie was sent with a detachment of troops from Boston, to take possession of some cannon at Salem. But the people who had by some means procured intelligence of the design, took up the draw-bridge in that town, and prevented the troops from passing, until the cannon were secured.

Provisions and military stores were also collected and stored in different places, particularly at Concord. General Gage, though zealous for his royal master's interest, discovered a prevailing desire after a peaceable accommodation. He wished to prevent hostilities by depriving the inhabitants of the means necessary for carrying them on. With this view, he is supposed to have had for his object the seizure of the persons of Messrs. Hancock and S. Adams, who by their spirited exertions had rendered themselves obnoxious to him, and to have determined to destroy the stores which he knew were collected for the support of a provincial army; and wishing to accomplish this without bloodshed, he took every precaution to effect it by surprise, and without alarming the country. At 11 o'clock at night 800 grenadiers and light infantry, the flower of the royal army, embarked at the common, landed at Leechmore's Point and marched for Concord, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Smith. Neither the secrecy with which this expedition was planned, the privacy with which the troops marched out, nor an order that no inhabitant should leave Boston, were sufficient to prevent intelligence from being sent to the]

[country militia of what was going on. About two in the morning, 130 of the Lexington militia had assembled to oppose them, but the air being chilly, and intelligence respecting the regulars uncertain, they were dismissed, with orders to appear again at the beat of drum. They collected a second time, to the number of 70, between four and five o'clock in the morning, and the British regulars soon after made their appearance. Major Pitcairn, who led the advanced corps, rode up to them and called out, "Disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." They still continued in a body, on which he advanced nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire. A dispersion of the militia was the consequence, but not till after three or four of them had been killed. The royal detachment proceeded on to Concord, and executed their commission. They disabled two 24 pounders, threw 500lb. of ball into rivers and wells, and broke in pieces about 60 barrels of flour. Mr. John Buterick, major of a minute regiment, not knowing what had passed at Lexington, ordered his men not to give the first fire, under the idea that they might thus prove themselves not to be the aggressors. Upon his approaching near the regulars, they fired, and killed Captain Isaac Davis, and one private of the provincial minute men. The fire was returned, and a skirmish ensued. The king's troops having done their business, began their retreat towards Boston. This was conducted with expedition, for the adjacent inhabitants had assembled in arms and began to attack them in every direction. In their return to Lexington they were exceedingly annoyed, both by those who pressed on their rear, and others who poured in from all sides, firing from behind stone walls, and such like coverts, which supplied the place of lines and redoubts. At Lexington the regulars were joined by a detachment of 900 men under Lord Piercy, which had been sent out by General Gage to support Lieutenant-colonel Smith. This reinforcement, having two pieces of cannon, awed the provincials, and kept them at a greater distance; but they continued a constant, though irregular and scattering fire, which did great execution. The close firing from behind the walls by good marksmen, put the regular troops in no small confusion, but they nevertheless kept up a brisk retreating fire on the militia and minute men. A little after sunset the regulars reached Bunker's Hill, worn down with excessive fatigue, having marched that day between 30 and 40 miles. On the next day they crossed Charlestown ferry to Boston.

There never were more than 400 provincials engaged at one time, and often not so many. As some tired and gave out, others came up and took their places. There was scarcely any discipline observed among them. Officers and privates fired when they were ready and saw a royal uniform, without waiting for the word of command. Their knowledge of the country enabled them to gain opportunities, by crossing fields and fences, and to act as flanking parties against the king's troops, who kept to the main road.

The American accounts state that the regulars had 65 killed, 174 wounded, and 24 made prisoners; and that of the provincials 49 were killed, and 39 wounded and missing.

Here was spilt the first blood in the late war: a war which severed America from the British empire. Lexington opened the first scene to this great drama, which, in its progress, exhibited such striking characters and events, and closed with a revolution so important in its consequences to mankind.

This battle roused all America. The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts being at this time in session, voted that "An army of 30,000 men be immediately raised; that 13,600 be of their own province, and that a letter and delegate be sent to the several colonies of New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island." The militia collected from all quarters, and Boston, in a few days, was besieged by 20,000 men. A stop was put to all intercourse between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of provisions.

At this time General Gage made a proposal with some want of foresight, and which it was partly out of his power to fulfil. Knowing that there were a great quantity of arms concealed in the town, he gave out that such as should surrender them up, should be entitled to leave the town with their effects; accordingly, in the course of five days after the agreement, the inhabitants had lodged 1,778 fire arms, 634 pistols, 273 bayonets, and 38 blunderbusses, and several were permitted to depart; but the fatal tendency of this leniency was perceived too late, when the governor discovered that whilst some arms were given up, others of more consequence were retained; and that even the royal party were obliged to retreat in their own defence, alledging that the provincialists would return and set fire to the town. Hence circumstances arose, which, however irremidiable, were certainly of a somewhat aggravated nature, and which formed grounds for some bitter complaints of the Congress.]

[About the latter end of May a great part of the reinforcements ordered from Great Britain arrived at Boston. Three British generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, whose behaviour in the preceding war had gained them great reputation, also arrived about the same time. General Gage, thus reinforced, prepared for acting with more decision; but before he proceeded to extremities, he conceived it due to ancient forms to issue a proclamation, holding forth to the inhabitants the alternative of peace or war. He therefore offered pardon in the king's name, to all who should forthwith lay down their arms, and return to their respective occupations and peaceable duties, excepting only from the benefit of that pardon "Samuel Adams and John Hancock," whose offences were said to be "of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." He also proclaimed, that not only the persons above named and excepted, but also all their adherents, associates, and correspondents should be deemed guilty of treason and rebellion, and treated accordingly. By this proclamation it was also declared, "that as the courts of judicature were shut, martial law should take place, till a due course of justice should be re-established." It was supposed that this proclamation was a prelude to hostilities, and preparations were accordingly made by the Americans. The heights of Charlestown were so situated as to make the possession of them a matter of great consequence to either of the contending parties. Orders were therefore issued, June 16th, by the provincial commanders, that a detachment of 1,000 men should intrench upon Breed's Hill, for it should be observed, that historians, through mistake, have called the hill where the battle was fought, Bunker's Hill, which is a quarter of a mile *n.* of Breed's Hill, where the battle was really fought. Here the Americans, between midnight and morning, with uncommon expedition and silence, threw up a small redoubt, which the British having discovered on the morning of the 17th, began an incessant firing, and continued it till the afternoon; though they could not eventually prevent the Americans from finishing their redoubt, and throwing up a breastwork, extending *e.* of it to the bottom of the hill. About noon General Gage detached Major-general Howe and Brigadier-general Pigot, with the flower of his army, in two detachments, amounting in the whole to nearly 3,000 men. They landed at a point about 150 or 200 rods *s. e.* of the redoubt, and deliberately prepared for the attack. While the troops, who first landed, were waiting for a reinforcement, the Americans on the left wing, towards Mystic River, for their security, pulled up some adjoining post and rail fence, and set it down in parallel lines, near each other, and filled the space between with hay, which the day before was mowed, and remained in the adjacent field. The British troops, in the mean time, formed in two lines, and about three o'clock advanced slowly towards the Americans. The hills and steeples in Boston, and the circumjacent country, were crowded with anxious spectators of the dubious conflict. The attack commenced on the part of the British troops. The Americans had the precaution to reserve their fire, till the British had approached within 10 or 12 rods of their works. They then began a well-directed and furious discharge of small arms, which did great execution, and seemed likely, at three different periods, to turn the fate of the day. But this conduct, on the part of the Americans, was presently overruled by that of his Majesty's forces, who had now, under the unyielding gallantry of General Howe, attacked the redoubt on two sides. Under these circumstances, a retreat was ordered; the left wing of the Americans, *n. e.* of the redoubt, still continuing their fire, ignorant of what had taken place on the right, till the British had nearly surrounded them. The retreat was effected with an inconsiderable loss, considering the greater part of the distance they had to pass was completely exposed to the incessant fire of the Glasgow man of war and two floating batteries.

During the heat of this bloody action, by order of General Gage, Charlestown was set on fire by a battery on Cops Hill, in Boston, and a party from the Somerset man of war lying in Charles River, and nearly 400 houses, including six public buildings, were consumed, with their furniture, &c. the whole being valued at about £.156,900 specie.

The number of Americans engaged in this memorable action amounted, according to their own statements, to 1,500 only; but it is certain that the disparity between them and the British was by no means so great. There have been few battles in modern wars in which, all circumstances considered, there was a greater slaughter of men than in this short engagement. The loss of the British, as acknowledged by General Gage, amounted to 1,054 men. Nineteen commissioned officers were killed, and 70 wounded. The loss of the Americans, as allowed by themselves, was 77 killed, 278 wounded and missing.]

[The death of Major-General Warren, who four days before had received his commission, and who, having had no command assigned him, fought this day as a volunteer, was a severe blow to the Americans; but the loss in officers to the British seemed to be almost irreparable; 19 of whom were killed, and 70 more were wounded, a circumstance which is to be accounted for by their having been picked out by the provincials, who, from hunting and amusements of the chase, had become distinguished marksmen.

About this time a scheme was laid by a number of gentlemen in Connecticut, to take possession of Ticonderoga, where a great quantity of military stores were lodged, and which is the key to Canada. Having made the necessary preparations, and collected 270 men, chiefly Green Mountain boys, they rendezvoused at Castleton, where they were joined by Col. Allen, and shortly after by Col. Arnold from Cambridge, under commission from the Provincial Congress. Col. Allen commanded this volunteer party. Having arrived at Lake Champlain, opposite Ticonderoga, in the night, Cols. Allen and Arnold, with 83 men, crossed over, and at the dawn of day entered the fort without resistance, and called upon the commander, who was in bed, to surrender the fort. He asked by what authority? Col. Allen replied —"I demand it in the name of the Great Jehovah, and of the Continental Congress." Thus the fort was captured, with its valuable stores and 48 prisoners. Crown Point was taken at the same time by Col. Warren, and the possession of all Lake Champlain was shortly after the consequence.

On the 15th of June, two days before the memorable battle on Breed's Hill, the Continental Congress unanimously appointed George Washington, Esq. a native of Virginia, to the chief command of the American army. It is but justice to say, that this gentleman had been a distinguished and successful officer in the preceding war: that he accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his modesty, his prudence, and his greatness, and that by his eminent skill, fortitude, and perseverence, he conducted America through difficulties as great as they were extraordinary.

It cannot, indeed, be thought an improper digression from the subject, to give in this place a short sketch of the life of this distinguished man.

Notwithstanding it has often been asserted, with confidence, that President Washington was a native of England, certain it is his ancestors went over from thence to America, so long ago as the year 1657. He, in the third descent of their migration, was born, February 11, 1732, (old style), at the parish of Washington, in Westmoreland County, in Virginia. His father's family was numerous, and he was the first fruit of a second marriage. His education having been principally conducted by a private tutor, at 15 years old he was entered a midshipman on board of a British vessel of war, stationed on the coast of Virginia, and his baggage prepared for embarkation; but the plan was abandoned on account of the reluctance his mother expressed to his engaging in that profession.

Previous to this transaction, when he was but 10 years of age, his father died, and the charge of the family devolved on his eldest brother. His eldest brother, a young man of the most promising talents, had a command in the colonial troops employed against Carthagena, and on his return from the expedition, named his new patrimonial mansion Mount Vernon, in honour of the admiral of that name, from whom he had received many civilities. He was afterwards made adjutant-general of the militia of Virginia, but did not long survive. At his decease, the eldest son by the second marriage inherited this seat, and a considerable landed property. In consequence of the extensive limits of the colony, the vacant office of adjutant-general was divided into three districts, and the future hero of America, before he attained his 20th year, began his military service by a principal appointment in that department, with the rank of major.

When he was little more than 21 years of age, an event occurred which called his abilities into public notice. In 1753, while the government of the colony was administered by Lieutenant-governor Dinwiddie, encroachments were reported to have been made by the French from Canada, on the territories of the British colonies, at the *w*. Mr. Washington, who was sent with plenary powers to ascertain the facts, treat with the savages, and warn the French to desist from their aggressions, performed the duties of his mission with singular industry, intelligence, and address. His journal and report to Governor Dinwiddie, which were published, announced to the world that correctness of mind, manliness in style, and accuracy in mode of doing business, which have since characterised him in the conduct of more arduous affairs. But it was deemed, by some, an extraordinary circumstance that so juvenile and inexperienced a person should have been employed on a negociation, with which subjects of the greatest importance were involved;]

[subjects, which shortly after became the origin of a war between England and France, that raged for many years throughout every part of the globe.

It would not comport with the intended brevity of this sketch, to mention in detail the fatigues he endured, the plans he suggested, or the system he pursued for the defence of the frontiers, during this war, until the year 1758.

Tranquillity on the frontiers of the middle colonies having been restored, and the health of Colonel Washington having become extremely debilitated by an inveterate pulmonary complaint, in 1759, he resigned his military appointment.

His health was gradually re-established. He married Mrs. Custis, a handsome and amiable young widow, possessed of an ample jointure; and settled as a planter and farmer on his estate at Mount Vernon, in Fairfax County.

After he left the army, until the year 1775, he cultivated the arts of peace. He was constantly a member of assembly, a magistrate of his county, and a judge of the court. He was elected a delegate to the first Congress in 1774, as well as to that which assembled in the year following. Soon after the war broke out he was appointed, as we have mentioned, by Congress, commander in chief of the forces of the United Colonies.

It would be less desirable to particularise, in this place, his transactions in the course of the late war, because they would form an invidious distinction to the outline we are now furnishing; but from them posterity might be taught, in what manner he transformed an undisciplined body of peasantry into a regular army of soldiers. Commentaries on his campaigns would undoubtedly be highly interesting and instructive to future generations. The conduct of the first campaign in compelling the British troops to abandon Boston, by a bloodless victory, will merit a minute narration. But a volume would scarcely contain the mortifications he experienced, and the hazards to which he was exposed, in 1776 and 1777, in contending against the prowess of Britain, with an inadequate force. His good destiny and consummate prudence, prevented want of success from producing want of confidence on the part of the public; for want of success is apt to lead to the adoption of pernicious counsels, through the levity of the people, or the ambition of their demagogues. Shortly after this period, sprang up the only cabal that ever existed during his public life, to rob him of his reputation and command. It proved as impotent in effect, as it was audacious in design. In the three succeeding years the germ of discipline unfolded; and the sources of America having been called into co-operation with the land and naval armies of France, produced the results of the campaign of 1781. From this time the gloom began to disappear from the political horizon, and the affairs of the Union proceeded in a meliorating train, till a peace was negociated by the ambassadors in Europe in 1783.

"No person," says his biographer, "who had not the advantage of being present when General Washington received the intelligence of peace, and who did not accompany him to his domestic retirement, can describe the relief which that joyful event brought to his labouring mind, or the supreme satisfaction with which he withdrew to private life. From his triumphal entry into New York, upon the evacuation of that city by the British army, to his arrival at Mount Vernon, after the resignation of his commission to Congress, festive crowds impeded his passage through all the populous towns; the devotion of a whole people pursued him with prayers to heaven for blessings on his head, while their gratitude sought the most expressive language of manifesting itself to him, as their common father and benefactor. When he became a private citizen, he had the unusual felicity to find that his native State was among the most zealous in doing justice to his merits; and that stronger demonstrations of affectionate esteem (if possible) were given by the citizens of his neighbourhood, than by any other description of men on the continent. But he constantly declined accepting any compensation for his services, or provision for the augmented expenses which were incurred by him in consequence of his public employment, although proposals were made in the most delicate manner, especially by the States of Virginia and Pennsylvania."

The happiness of private life he did not long enjoy. In 1789, by the unanimous voice of his countrymen, he was called to the high office of chief magistrate of the United States of America; which office he sustained with considerable dignity, prudence, and ability, till 1796, when he refused to stand the election, and was succeeded by Mr. Adams.

But, to return to the history of the campaign, General Washington, with other officers appointed by Congress, arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the American army in July, 1775. From this time, the affairs of America began to assume the appearance of a regular and general opposition to the forces of Great Britain.]

[In autumn, a body of troops, under the command of General Montgomery, besieged and took the garrison at St. John's, which commands the entrance into Canada. The prisoners amounted to about 700. General Montgomery pursued his success, and took Montreal; and designed to push his victories to Quebec.

A body of troops, commanded by General Arnold, was ordered to march to Canada by the river Kennebeck, and through the wilderness. After suffering every hardship, and the most distressing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by General Montgomery, before Quebec. This city, which was commanded by Governor Carleton, was immediately besieged; but there being little hope of taking the town by a siege, it was determined to storm it.

The garrison of Quebec, at this time, consisted of about 1,520 men, of which 800 were militia. The American army consisted of 800 men. General Montgomery having divided his forces into four detachments, ordered two feints to be made against the upper town, one by Colonel Livingston, at the head of the Canadians, against St. John's Gate; the other by Major Brown against Cape Diamond; reserving to himself and Colonel Arnold, the two principal attacks against the lower town. At five o'clock in the morning General Montgomery advanced against the lower town; he passed the first barrier, and was just opening to attack the second, when he was killed, together with his aid-de-camp, Captain M'Pherson. The dispersion of the Americans immediately ensued, and Colonel Campbell, on whom the command devolved, was obliged to make the best retreat he was able. In the mean time Colonel Arnold, with 350 men, made a successful attack on another part of the town. In the attack of the first battery, Colonel Arnold was wounded, and was obliged to be carried off the field of battle. His party, however, commanded by Captain Morgan of Virginia, proceeded and entered the town; but not being joined by the other parties, was obliged to surrender to superior force.

The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was about 100, and 300 were taken prisoners. Historians must do justice to the bravery as well of the provincial as of the British troops on this occasion.

After the defeat, Colonel Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued some months before Quebec, although his troops were reduced in numbers, and suffered incredibly from cold and sickness.

The death of General Montgomery was greatly and sincerely regretted on both sides. "His many amiable qualities had procured him an uncommon share of private affection, and his great abilities, an equal proportion of public esteem." His name was mentioned in parliament with singular respect: the minister himself acknowledged his worth, while he reprobated the cause in which he fell. He concluded an involuntary panegyric, by saying, "Curse on his virtues, they have undone his country."

He was descended from a respectable family in the *n.* of Ireland, and was born in the year 1737. His attachment to liberty was innate, and matured by a fine education and an excellent understanding. Having married a wife, and purchased an estate in New York, he was, from these circumstances, as well as from his natural love of freedom, and from a conviction of the justness of such a cause, induced to consider himself as an American. From principle, he early embarked in her cause, and quitted the sweets of easy fortune, the enjoyment of a loved and philosophical rural life, with the highest domestic felicity, to take an active share in all the hardships and dangers that attend the soldier's life. Before he came over to America, he had been an officer in the service of England, and had successfully fought her battles with the immortal Wolfe at Quebec, in the war 1756; and it is something extraordinary that he should have met with defeat and death on the very spot where he had once been victorious, and from the very standards under which he had conquered.

About this time, the large and flourishing town of Norfolk in Virginia, having refused to supply his Majesty's ships with provisions, on the requisition of the governor, Lord Dunmore, was, by his order, reduced to ashes; and the same fate shortly after awaited Falmouth, a considerable town in the province of Main in Massachusetts.

General Gage went to England in September, and was succeeded in the command by General Howe.

The British government entered into treaties with some of the German princes for about 14 thousand men, who were to be sent to America the next year, to assist in subduing the colonies. The parliament also passed an act, forbidding all intercourse with America; and while they repealed the Boston port and fishery bills, they declared all American property on the high seas, forfeited to the captors.

Measures were taken to annoy the British party in Boston; for this purpose, batteries were]

opened on several hills, from whence shot and bombs were thrown into the town. The batteries which were opened on Dorchester Point had great effect, and eventually obliged General Howe to abandon the town. In March 1776 the British troops embarked for Halifax, and General Washington entered Boston in triumph.

In the ensuing summer, a small squadron of ships, commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under the Generals Clinton and Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleston, the capital of S. Carolina. The ships made a gallant attack upon the fort on Sullivan's Island, but meeting with a strong repulse, the expedition was obliged to be abandoned.

In July, Congress published their declaration of independence, which separated America from Great Britain. This great event took place 284 years after the discovery of America by Columbus —166 from the first effectual settlement in Virginia, and 156 from the first settlement of Plymouth in Massachusetts, which were the earliest English settlements in America.

Just after this declaration, General Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New York, and landed his troops on Staten Island. General Washington was in New York with about 13,000 men, who were encamped either in the city or the neighbouring fortifications.

The operations of the British began by the action on Long Island in the month of August. The American Generals Sullivan and Lord Sterling, with a large body of men, were made prisoners. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered, and executed with such silence that the Americans left the island without alarming their enemies, and without loss.

In September, the city of New York was taken by the British.

In November, Fort Washington on York Island was taken, and more than 2,000 Americans made prisoners. Fort Lee, opposite to Fort Washington, on the Jersey shore, was soon after taken, but the garrison escaped.

About the same time, General Clinton was sent with a body of troops to take possession of Rhode Island, and succeeded. In addition to all these losses and defeats, the American army suffered by desertion, and more by sickness, which was epidemic and very mortal.

The northern army at Ticonderoga was in a disagreeable situation, particularly after the battle on Lake Champlain, in which the American force, consisting of a few light vessels, under the command of Generals Arnold and Waterbury, was totally dispersed. But General Carleton, not thinking it prudent to follow up his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitered the posts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

The American army might now be said to be no more. All that now remained of an army, which, at the opening of the campaign, amounted to at least 25,000 men, did not now exceed 3,000. The term of their engagements being expired, they returned in large bodies to their families and friends; the few, who, from personal attachment, local circumstances, or superior perseverance and bravery, continued with the Generals Washington and Lee, were too inconsiderable to appear formidable in the view of a powerful and victorious enemy.

In this alarming and critical situation of affairs, General Lee, through an imprudent carelessness, which ill became a man in his important station, was captured by a party of British light horse, commanded by Colonel Harcourt. This circumstance gave a severe shock to the remaining hopes of the Americans, and rendered their situation truly distressing.

While these things were transacting in New Jersey, General Washington, not discouraged by the loss of General Lee, and anxious to take every advantage to raise the drooping spirits of his handful of men, had made a stand on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware. He collected his scattered forces, called in the assistance of the Pennsylvania militia, and on the night of December 25, 1776, when the enemy were lulled into security by the idea of his weakness, and by the inclemency of the night, which was remarkably boisterous, as well as by the fumes of a Christmas eve, he crossed the river, and, at the breaking of day, marched down to Trenton, and so completely surprised them, that the greater part of the detachment, which were stationed at this place, surrendered after a short resistance. The horsemen and a few others made their escape at the opposite end of the town. Upwards of 900 Hessians were taken prisoners at this time.

The success of this bold enterprise revived the desponding hopes of America. The loss of the Americans was, however, considerable; and, amongst the rest, they had to deplore that of General Mercer.

The following year, 1777, was distinguished by very memorable events in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, Governor Tyron was sent with a body of troops to destroy the stores at Danbury in Connecticut. This plan was executed, and the town mostly burnt. The British suffered in their retreat, but the Ameri-]

[cans lost General Wooster, a brave and experienced officer.

General Prescot was taken from his quarters on Rhode Island, by a force under the command of Colonel Barton, and conveyed prisoner to the continent.

General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern British army, took possession of Ticonderoga, after having driven the Americans from that post. He pushed his successes, crossed Lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudson, near Saratoga. His progress, however, was checked by the defeat of Colonel Baum, near Bennington, in which the undisciplined militia, under General Stark, displayed great bravery, and captured almost the whole detachment. The militia assembled from all parts of New England to stop the progress of General Burgoyne.

These, with the regular troops, formed a respectable army, commanded by General Gates. After two severe actions, in which the Generals Lincoln and Arnold were wounded, General Burgoyne found himself surrounded by superior numbers, and after a most desperate and valiant conflict, was forced to surrender his whole army, amounting to 5,752 men, into the hands of the Americans. When General Burgoyne left Canada, his army consisted of 10,000 men, together with a fine train of artillery. The above event, which happened on October 17, 1777, was made the most of by the provincials. It was blazoned forth in the most lively colours, and is by them considered to have been instrumental to laying the foundation for their treaty with France.

But before these transactions, the main body of the British forces had embarked at New York, sailed up the Chesapeak, and landed at the head of Elk River. The army soon began their march for Philadelphia. General Washington had determined to oppose them, and for this purpose made a stand, first at Red Clay Creek, and then upon the heights near Brandywine Creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered, and suffered great loss. The British soon pursued their march, and took possession of Philadelphia towards the close of September.

Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at Germantown, and in the beginning of the action, the Americans had the advantage; but the fortune of the day was eventually turned in favour of the British. Both sides suffered considerable losses; on the side of the Americans was General Nash.

In an attack upon the forts at Mud Island and Red Bank, the Hessians were unsuccessful, and their commander, Colonel Donop, killed. The British also lost the Augusta, a ship of the line. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation of the Delaware opened. General Washington was reinforced with a part of the troops which had composed the northern army, under General Gates; and both armies retired to winter quarters.

In October, the same month in which General Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, General Vaughan, with a small fleet, sailed up Hudson's River, and burnt Kingston, a beautiful Dutch settlement on the *w*. side of the river.

The beginning of the next year, 1778, was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between France and America; by which the latter obtained a powerful ally. When the English ministry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they dispatched commissioners to America, to attempt a reconciliation. But America would not now accept their offers. Early in the spring, Count d'Estaing, with a fleet of 15 sail of the line, was sent by the court of France to assist America.

General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon Sir Henry Clinton.

In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched for New York; on their march they met, as was natural, with much annoyance from the Americans; but at Monmouth a very regular action took place between part of the armies; when the latter were repulsed with great loss. General Lee, for his misconduct that day, was suspended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

General Lee's conduct, at several times before this, had been very suspicious. In December, 1776, he lay at Chatham, about 11 miles from Elizabeth Town, with a brigade of troops, when a great quantity of baggage was stored at Elizabeth Town, under a guard of only 500 Hessians. General Lee was apprised of this, and might have surprised the guard and taken the baggage; but he neglected the opportunity, and after several marches and counter-marches between Troy, Chatham, and Morris Town, he took up his quarters at or near White's tavern, where he was surprised and taken by a party of the British horse. He was heard to say, repeatedly, that General Washington would ruin a fine army. It was suspected that he had designs to supplant the general, and his friends attempted to place him at the head of the army. General Washington's prudent delays and cautious movements afforded General Lee's friends many opportunities to spread reports unfavourable to his]

[character. It was insinuated with some success, that General Washington wanted courage and abilities. Reports of this kind, at one time, rendered General Lee very popular, and, it is supposed, he wished to frustrate General Washington's plans, in order to increase the suspicions already entertained of his generalship, and turn the public clamour in his own favour. His conduct at Monmouth was, by some, supposed to have proceeded from such a design; for he commanded the flower of the American army, and was not destitute of courage.

In August, General Sullivan, with a large body of troops, attempted to take possession of Rhode Island, but did not succeed. Soon after, the stores and shipping at Bedford, in Massachusetts, were burnt by a party of the British troops. The same year, Savannah, the capital of Georgia, was taken by the British, under the command of Colonel Campbell.

In the following year, 1779, General Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army.

Governor Tryon and Sir George Collier made an incursion into Connecticut, and burnt the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk. But the American arms were crowned with success in a bold attack upon Stoney Point, which was surprised and taken by General Wayne in the night of July 15, 1779. Five hundred men were made prisoners, with little loss on either side.

A party of British forces attempted this summer to build a fort on Penobscot river, for the purpose of cutting timber in the neighbouring forest. A plan was laid in Massachusetts to dislodge them, and a considerable fleet collected for the purpose; but the plan failed of success, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the British, except some vessels which were burnt by the Americans themselves.

In October, General Lincoln and Count d'Estaing made an assault upon Savannah; but they were repulsed with considerable loss. In this action, the celebrated Polish Count Pulaski, who had acquired the reputation of a brave soldier, was mortally wounded.

In this summer General Sullivan marched with a body of troops into the Indian country, in the *w.* part of the New York State, and burnt and destroyed all their provisions and settlements that fell in their way.

On the opening of the campaign the next year, 1780, the British troops left Rhode Island. An expedition, under General Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charleston, S. Carolina, where General Lincoln commanded. This town, after a close siege of about six weeks, was surrendered to the British commander; and General Lincoln, and the whole American garrison, were made prisoners.

General Gates was appointed to the command in the *s.* department, and another army collected. In August, Lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in S. Carolina, and routed them with considerable loss. He afterwards marched through the Southern States, and supposed them entirely subdued.

The same summer the British troops made frequent incursions from New York into the Jerseys, ravaging and plundering the country.

In July a French fleet, under Monsieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by Count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island, to the great joy of the Americans.

This year was also distinguished by the treachery of General Arnold. General Washington having some business to transact at Weathersfield, in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important post of W. Point, which guards a pass in Hudson's river, about 60 miles from New York. Arnold's conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been censured; and the treatment he received, in consequence, had given him offence.

He determined to take revenge, and, for this purpose, he entered into a negociation with Sir Henry Clinton to deliver W. Point and the army into the hands of the British. While General Washington was absent, he dismounted the cannon in some of the forts, and took other steps to render the taking of the post easy for the enemy.

The plan was, however, wholly defeated. Major André, adjutant-general in the British army, aid-de-camp to General Clinton, a brave officer, who had been sent up the river as a spy, to concert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court-martial, and executed. Arnold made his escape, by getting on board the Vulture, a British vessel which lay in the river. General Washington arrived in camp just after Arnold made his escape, and restored order in the garrison.

After the defeat of General Gates, in Carolina, General Greene was appointed to command in the southern department. From this period, things in that quarter wore a more favourable aspect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the British legion, was defeated by General Morgan, the commander of the riflemen.

After a variety of movements the two armies]

met at Guildford, in Carolina. Here was one of the best fought actions during the war. General Greene and Lord Cornwallis exerted themselves at the head of their respective armies; and although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field, yet the British army suffered an immense loss, and could not pursue the victory. The action happened March 15, 1781.

In the spring, General Arnold, who was made a brigadier-general in the British service, with a small number of troops sailed for Virginia, and plundered the country. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter, and a naval engagement took place between the English and French, in which some of the English ships were much damaged, and one entirely disabled.

After the battle of Guildford General Greene moved towards S. Carolina to drive the British from their posts in that State. Here Lord Rawdon obtained an inconsiderable advantage over the Americans, near Camden. But General Greene more than recovered this disadvantage, by a successful action at the Eutaw Springs; where General Marian distinguished himself, and Colonel Washington was wounded and taken prisoner.

Lord Cornwallis, finding General Greene successful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himself in York Town. In the meantime Arnold made an incursion into Connecticut, burnt a part of New London, took Fort Griswold by storm, and put the garrison to the sword. The garrison consisted chiefly of men collected from the little town of Groton. The attack was most violent; and in one hour almost all its heads of families were corpses. Colonel Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was slain with his own sword after he had surrendered.

The Marquis de la Fayette, a brave and generous nobleman, had been dispatched with about 2000 light infantry from the main army, to watch the motions of Lord Cornwallis in Virginia. He prosecuted this expedition with the greatest military ability. Although his force was much inferior to that of the enemy, he obliged them to leave Richmond and Williamsburgh, and to seek protection under their shipping.

About the last of August Count de Grasse arrived in the Chesapeake, and blocked up the British troops at York-town. Admiral Greaves, with a British fleet, appeared off the Capes, and an action succeeded; but it was not decisive.

General Washington had before this time moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the *s.*; and as soon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Chesapeake, he made rapid marches to the head of Elk, where embarking, the troops soon arrived at York-town.

A close siege immediately commenced, and was carried on with such vigour, by the combined forces of America and France, that Lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender. This event, which took place October 19, 1781, decided the contest in favour of America, and laid the foundation of a general peace.

A few months after the surrender of Cornwallis, the British evacuated all their posts in S. Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New York.

The next spring, 1782, Sir Guy Carleton arrived in New York, and took the command of the British army in America: immediately on his arrival, he acquainted General Washington and Congress that negociations for peace had commenced at Paris.

On November 30, 1782, the provisional articles of peace and reconciliation, between Great Britain and the American States, were signed at Paris; by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of the United States of America. These articles were ratified by a definitive treaty, September 3, 1783. This peace was negociated on the part of Great Britain by Mr. Oswald, and the definitive treaty was signed by Mr. Hartley; and on the part of the United States by John Adams, John Jay, and Benjamin Franklin, Esqrs. The characters of these men having been such as to excite much interest, a short sketch of them will be here given.

Mr. Adams was a descendent of one of the first families that founded the colony of Massachusett's Bay, in 1630. He was born at Braintree, in Massachusetts, October 19, 1735.

Mr. John Jay was a descendent of one of the French Protestant emigrants, who came to America, in consequence of the revocation of the Edict of Nantz, in 1685. It is remarkable that among the descendants of these emigrants, some of whom settled in New York and some in Boston, there have been the following eminent characters: James Bowdoin, Esq. who had been Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and, at his death, was President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; Henry Laurens, Esq. who has been President of Congress and Ambassador to a foreign court; Elias Boudinot, Esq. who has been President of Congress; and John Jay, Esq. who has been Presi-

[dent of Congress, Ambassador to a foreign court, and Chief Justice of the American States.

Dr. Franklin was born in Boston, January 6, 1706, O. S. He was educated to the business of printing. In the first 24 years of his life he passed through an uncommon variety of scenes, which he improved to valuable purposes. He early discovered a strong and distinguishing mind, and a fertile and inventive genius. About the age of 24 he married Miss Read of Philadelphia, where he had established himself as a printer. In 1736 he was chosen Clerk of the General Assembly of Pennsylvania; and the year following was appointed Postmaster in Philadelphia. In 1744, he broached the idea of the American Philosophical Society, and had the pleasure to find it meet with all the success he could desire. He was the principal instrument also in planning and establishing the Academy of Philadelphia, from which have sprung the College and University of that city.

In 1747, and for 20 years after, successively, he was chosen a representative to the Assembly for the city of Philadelphia; in which situation he was highly respected and singularly useful. He was appointed joint Postmaster-general with Mr. William Hunter in 1753. He was greatly instrumental in carrying into effect Dr. Bond's plan for an hospital in Philadelphia, the advantages of which have been extensively experienced. By this time his character as a philosopher was known in Europe as well as America; and he received the honorary degree of Master of Arts from Yale and Harvard Colleges.

In 1754 he was appointed one of the Commissioners, from Pennsylvania, to attend the celebrated Albany Congress, in order to devise a plan for defending the country against the French. Here he drew up his "Albany Plan of Union," which was unanimously agreed to by Congress; but, though wisely adapted to preserve the harmony between Great Britain and her colonies, was ultimately rejected.

In 1757 the Assembly of Pennsylvania, indignant at the obstinacy of the governors who were shackled with instructions not to assent to any tax bill, that did not exempt the estates of the proprietors from contributing to the public service, determined to send an agent to London, to petition the King for redress. Mr. Franklin was appointed for this purpose, and ably negociated the business; for which, on his return to Philadelphia, he received the thanks of the General Assembly.

His distinguished literary reputation procured him, while in England, the honorary title of Doctor of Laws from Edinburgh and Oxford Universities.

Some time after this he was again sent to England, by the Assembly of Pennsylvania, with a petition to have a new form of government established, and to be taken under the royal protection. Before his return to America he travelled, in 1766, into Germany, and, in 1767, into France; and wherever he appeared he was received with the highest respect and veneration. His endeavours to prevent the enaction of the stamp act, the ability with which he sustained his examination at the bar of the House of Commons, his obtaining and forwarding to Boston the insidious letters of Governor Hutchinson, procured for him, on his return to America, the most unbounded applause of his countrymen. He was soon elected a member of Congress; and, in 1776, was chosen with John Adams and Edward Rutledge, Esqrs. a Committee of Congress to wait on Lord Howe, and to inquire into the extent of his powers to treat of the restoration of peace. Lord Howe having expressed his concern at being obliged to distress those whom he so much regarded, Dr. Franklin assured him that the Americans, out of reciprocal regard, would endeavour to lessen, as much as possible, the pain he might feel on their account, by taking the utmost care of themselves.

In 1776 a convention was called, in Pennsylvania, to establish a new form of government. Dr. Franklin was appointed President. The latter end of the same year he was sent to France, where, with the assistance of Mr. Silas Dean, he negociated a treaty with France, Feb. 1778.

We have already mentioned his being one of the three commissioners who negociated the peace of 1783. He returned to America in 1785, and was chosen President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania, and in 1787 was appointed a delegate from that State to the august body which formed the present frame of government of the United States.

On April 17, 1790, after a long and painful illness, he resigned a life which had been singularly devoted to the welfare of his country and the good of mankind.

Among the many testimonies of respect paid to his memory, the Congress of the United States, and the National Assembly of France, went into mourning on his death.

Dr. Franklin possessed an original genius. The faculties of his mind qualified him to penetrate into every science; and his singular and]

[unremitting diligence left no field of knowledge unexplored. He was eminently distinguished as a politician and a scholar, and if possible more so as a man and a citizen. He was great in common things, and his life was useful beyond most men that have lived. The whole tenor of his life was a perpetual lecture against the idle, the extravagant, and the proud. It was his principal aim to inspire mankind with a love of industry, temperance, and frugality. By a judicious division of time, he acquired the art of doing every thing to advantage. In whatever situation he was placed, by chance or design, he extracted something useful for himself or others. His manners were easy and accommodating, and his address winning and respectful. All who knew him speak of him as an agreeable man; and all who have heard of him applaud him as a very useful one. A man so wise and so amiable, could not but have many admirers and many friends. (American Museum, vol. viii.)

But, to return to our history, we find that, according to the report of the committee appointed for that purpose, the foreign debt of the United States, incurred by the war, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars, and the domestic debt to 34,115,290, total at 4*s*. 6*d*. each, equal to £.9,450,084 sterling, the interest of which, at 6 per cent, is £.567,005. But the cost to Great Britain is moderately computed at £.115,654,914 since January, 1775. As to the loss of men during the unhappy war, the States of America, according to authentic estimates, lost, by the sword and in prison, near 80,000 men; and, by the British returns at New York, the number of soldiers killed in the service amounted to 43,633.

Such was the end of the contest between Great Britain and America. A contest by which the latter attained to an independent rank amongst the nations that may be productive of more important consequences than may yet be foreseen; and in which the former, happily for herself, was forced to relinquish a sovereignty that served only to depress her own internal industry, and retard her prosperity. She has, in the event, only suffered a diminution of an unwieldy empire, which has been more than compensated by an increase of population, commerce, revenues, and wealth.

Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States, April 19, 1782; Sweden, February 5; Denmark, February 25; Spain, in March; and Russia, in July, 1783.

No sooner was peace restored by the definitive treaty, and the British troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government. While an enemy was in the country, fear, which had first impelled the colonies to associate in mutual defence, continued to operate as a band of political union. It gave to the resolutions and recommendations of Congress the force of laws, and generally commanded a ready acquiescence on the part of the State legislatures. Articles of confederation and perpetual union had been framed in Congress, and submitted to the consideration of the States, in the year 1778. Some of the States immediately acceded to them; but others, which had not unappropriated lands, hesitated to subscribe a compact, which would give an advantage to the States which possessed large tracts of unlocated lands, and were thus capable of a great superiority in wealth and population. All objections, however, had been overcome, and, by the accession of Maryland in March, 1781, the articles of confederation were ratified, as the frame of government for the United States.

These articles, however, were framed during the rage of war, when a principle of common safety supplied the place of a coercive power in government, by men who could have had no experience in the art of governing an extensive country, and under circumstances the most critical and embarrassing. To have offered to the people, at that time, a system of government armed with the powers necessary to regulate and controul the contending interests of 13 States, and the possession of millions of people, might have raised a jealousy between the States or in the minds of the people at large, that would have weakened the operations of war, and perhaps have rendered an union impracticable. Hence the numerous defects of the confederation.

On the conclusion of peace these defects began to be felt. Each State assumed the right of disputing the propriety of the resolutions of Congress, and the interest of an individual State was placed in opposition to the common interest of the union. In addition to this source of division, a jealousy of the powers of Congress began to be excited in the minds of people.

This jealousy of the privileges of freemen had been roused by the oppressive act of the British parliament; and no sooner had the danger from this quarter ceased, than the fears of people changed their object, and were turned against their own rulers.

In this situation there were not wanting men of industry and talents, who had been enemies to the revolution, and who embraced the opportu-]

[nity to multiply the apprehensions of people and increase the popular discontents. A remarkable instance of this happened in Connecticut. As soon as the tumults of war had subsided, an attempt was made to convince the people that the act of Congress, passed in 1778, granting to the officers of the army half-pay for life, was highly unjust and tyrannical; and that it was but the first step towards the establishment of pensions and an uncontrolable despotism. The act of Congress passed in 1783, commuting half-pay for life for five years full pay, was designed to appease the apprehensions of people, and to convince them that this gratuity was intended merely to indemnify the officers for their losses by the depreciating of the paper currency, and not to establish a precedent for the granting of pensions. This act, however, did not satisfy the people, who supposed that the officers had been generally indemnified for the loss of their pay, by the grants made them, from time to time, by the legislatures of the several States. Besides, the act, while it gave five years full pay to the officers, allowed but one year's pay to the privates; a distinction which had great influence in exciting and continuing the popular ferment, and one that turned a large share of the public rage against the officers themselves.

The moment an alarm was made respecting this act of Congress, the enemies of independence became active in blowing up the flame, by spreading reports unfavourable to the general government, and tending to create public dissensions. Newspapers, in some parts of the country, were filled with inflammatory publications; while false reports and groundless insinuations were industriously circulated to the prejudice of Congress and the officers of the late army. Among a people feelingly alive to every thing that could affect the rights for which they had been contending, these reports could not fail of having a powerful effect; the clamour soon became general; the officers of the army, it was believed, had attempted to raise their fortunes on the distresses of their fellow-citizens, and Congress become the tyrants of their country.

Connecticut was the seat of this uneasiness; although other States were much agitated on the occasion. But the inhabitants of that State, accustomed to order and a due subordination to the laws, did not proceed to outrages; they took their usual mode of collecting the sense of the State—assembled in town meetings—appointed committees to meet in convention, and consult what measures should be adopted to procure a redress of their grievances. In this convention, which was held at Middletown, some nugatory resolves were passed, expressing the disapprobation of the half-pay act, and the subsequent commutation of the grant for five years whole pay. The same spirit also discovered itself in the assembly, at their October session, 1783. A remonstrance against the acts in favour of the officers was framed in the House of Representatives, and, notwithstanding the Upper House refused to concur in the measure, it was sent to Congress.

During this situation of affairs, the public odium against the officers was augmented by another circumstance. The officers, just before the disbanding of the army, had formed a society, called by the name of the Cincinnati, after the Roman Dictator, Cincinnatus.

Whatever were the real views of the framers of this institution, its design was generally understood to be harmless and honourable. The ostensible views of the society could not however screen it from popular jealousy. A spirited pamphlet appeared in S. Carolina, the avowed production of Mr. Burke, one of the judges of the supreme court in that State, in which the author attempted to prove that the principles, on which the society was formed, would, in process of time, originate and establish an order of nobility in the country, which would be repugnant to the genius of republican governments, and dangerous to liberty. This pamphlet appeared in Connecticut, during the commotions raised by the half-pay and commutation acts, and contributed not a little to spread the flame of opposition.

Notwithstanding the discontents of the people were general, and ready to burst forth in sedition, yet men of information, viz. the officers of government, the clergy, and persons of liberal education, were mostly opposed to the unconstitutional steps taken by the committees and convention at Middletown. They supported the propriety of the measures of Congress, both by conversation and writing, proved that such grants to the army were necessary to keep the troops together, and that the expense would not be enormous nor oppressive. During the close of the year 1783, every possible exertion was made to enlighten the people, and such was the effect of the arguments used by the minority; that in the beginning of the following year, the opposition subsided, the committees were dismissed, and tranquillity restored to the State. In May, the legislature were able to carry several measures which had before been extremely unpo-]

[pular. An act was passed granting the impost of five per cent. to Congress; another giving great encouragement to commerce; and several towns were incorporated with extensive privileges, for the purpose of regulating the exports of the State, and facilitating the collection of debts.

The opposition to the congressional acts in favour of their officers, and to the order of the Cincinnati, did not rise to the same pitch in the other States as in Connecticut; yet it produced much disturbance in Massachusetts, and some others. Jealousy of power had been universally spread among the people of the United States. The destruction of the old forms of governments, and the licentiousness of war, had, in a great measure, broken their habits of obedience; their passions had been inflamed by the cry of despotism; and like centinels, who have been suddenly surprized by the approach of an enemy, the rustling of a leaf was sufficient to give them an alarm. This spirit of jealousy operated with other causes to relax the energy of federal operations.

During the war, vast sums of paper currency had been emitted by Congress, and large quantities of specie had been introduced, towards the close of the war, by the French army, and the Spanish trade. This plenty of money enabled the States to comply with the first requisitions of Congress; so that during two or three years, the federal treasury was, in some measure, supplied. But when the danger of war had ceased, and the vast importations of foreign goods had lessened the quantity of circulating specie, the States began to be very remiss in furnishing their proportion of monies. The annihilation of the credit of the paper bills had totally stopped their circulation, and the specie was leaving the country in cargoes for remittances to Great Britain; still the luxurious habits of the people, contracted during the war, called for new supplies of goods, and private gratification seconded the narrow policy of state interest in defeating the operations of the general government.

Thus the revenues of Congress were annually diminishing; some of the States wholly neglecting to make provision for paying the interest of the national debt; others making but a partial provision, until the scanty supplies received from a few of the richest States, would hardly satisfy the demands of the civil list.

This weakness of the federal government, in conjunction with the flood of certificates or public securities, which Congress could neither fund nor pay, occasioned them to depreciate to a very inconsiderable value. The officers and soldiers of the late army, and those who furnished supplies for public exigencies, were obliged to receive for wages these certificates, or promissory notes, which passed at a fifth, an eighth, or a tenth of their nominal value; being thus deprived at once of the greatest part of the reward due for their services. Some indeed profited by speculations in these evidences of the public debt; but such as were under a necessity of parting with them, were robbed of that support which they had a right to expect and demand from their countrymen.

Pennsylvania indeed made a provision for paying the interest of her debt, both state and federal; assuming her supposed proportion of the continental debt, and giving the creditors of her own State notes in exchange for those of the United States. The resources of that State are immense, but she was not able to make punctual payments, even in a depreciated paper currency.

Massachusetts, in her zeal to comply fully with the requisitions of Congress, and satisfy the demands of her own creditors, laid a heavy tax upon the people. This was the immediate cause of the rebellion in that State, in 1786. But a heavy debt lying on the State added to burdens of the same nature, upon almost every corporation within it; a decline, or rather an extinction of public credit; a relaxation and corruption of manners, and a free use of foreign luxuries; a decay of trade and manufactures, with a prevailing scarcity of money; and, above all, individuals involved in debt to each other. These were the real, though more remote causes of the insurrection. It was the tax which the people were required to pay, that caused them to feel the evils which we have enumerated—this called forth all their other grievances; and the first act of violence committed was the burning or destroying of the tax bill. This sedition threw the State into a convulsion which lasted about a year; courts of justice were violently obstructed; the collection of debts was suspended; and a body of armed troops, under the command of General Lincoln, was employed during the winter of 1786, to disperse the insurgents. Yet so numerous were the latter in the counties of Worcester, Hampshire, and Berkshire, and so obstinately combined to the execution of law by force, that the governor and council of the State thought proper not to intrust General Lincoln]

[with military powers, except to act on the defensive, and to repel force with force, in case the insurgents should attack him. The leaders of the rebels, however, were not men of talents; they were desperate, but without fortitude; and even while they were supported with a superior force, they appeared to be impressed with that consciousness of guilt, which awes the most daring wretch, and makes him shrink from his purpose. This appears by the conduct of a large party of the rebels before the magazine at Springfield, where General Shepard, with a small guard, was stationed to protect the continental stores. The insurgents appeared upon the plain, with a vast superiority of numbers, but a few shot from the artillery made the multitude retreat in disorder with the loss of four men. This spirited conduct of General Shepard, with the industry, perseverance, and prudent firmness of General Lincoln, dispersed the rebels—drove the leaders from the State, and restored tranquillity. An act of indemnity was passed in the legislature for all the insurgents, except a few of the leaders, on condition they should become peaceable subjects, and take the oath of allegiance. The leaders afterwards petitioned for pardon, which, from motives of policy, was granted by the legislature. See an elegant and impartial History of this Rebellion, by George Richards Minot, Esq.

But the loss of public credit, popular disturbances, and insurrections, were not the only evils which were generated by the peculiar circumstances of the times. The emissions of bills of credit and tender laws were added to the black catalogue of political disorders.

The expedient of supplying the deficiencies of specie, by emissions of paper bills, was adopted very early in the colonies. The expedient was obvious, and produced good effects. In a new country, where population is rapid, and the value of lands increasing, the farmer finds an advantage in paying legal interest for money; for if he can pay the interest by his profits, the increasing value of his lands will in a few years discharge the principal.

In no colony was this advantage more sensibly experienced than in Pennsylvania. The emigrations to that province were numerous—the natural population rapid—and these circumstances combined, advanced the value of real property to an astonishing degree. As the first settlers there, as well as in other provinces, were poor, the purchase of a few foreign articles drained them of specie. Indeed, for many years, the balance of trade must have necessarily been greatly against the colonies.

But bills of credit, emitted by the State and loaned to the industrious inhabitants, supplied the want of specie, and enabled the farmer to purchase stock. These bills were generally a legal tender in all colonial or private contracts, and the sums issued did not generally exceed the quantity requisite for a medium of trade; they retained their full nominal value in the purchase of commodities: but as they were not received by the British merchants, in payment of their goods, there was a great demand for specie and bills, which occasioned the latter at various times to appreciate. Thus was introduced a difference between the English sterling money and the currencies of the colonies, which remains to this day.

The advantages the colonies had derived from bills of credit, under the British government, suggested to Congress, in 1775, the idea of issuing bills for the purpose of carrying on the war; and this was perhaps their only expedient. Money could not be raised by taxation—it could not be borrowed. The first emissions had no other effect upon the medium of commerce, than to drive the specie from circulation. But when the paper substituted for specie had, by repeated emissions, augmented the sum in circulation, much beyond the usual sum of specie, the bills began to lose their value. The depreciation continued in proportion to the sums emitted, until 70 and even 150 nominal paper dollars, were hardly an equivalent for one Spanish milled dollar. Still, from the year 1775 to 1781, this depreciating paper currency was almost the only medium of trade. It supplied the place of specie, and enabled Congress to support a numerous army; until the sum in circulation amounted to 200 millions of dollars. But about the year 1780, specie began to be plentiful, being introduced by the French army, a private trade with the Spanish islands, and an illicit intercourse with the British garrison at New York. This circumstance accelerated the depreciation of paper bills, until their value had sunk almost to nothing. In 1781, the merchants and brokers in the Southern States, apprehensive of the approaching fate of the currency, pushed immense quantities of it suddenly into New England—made vast purchases of goods in Boston—and instantly the bills vanished from circulation.

The whole history of this continental paper is a history of public and private frauds. Old specie debts were often paid in a depreciated]

[currency—and even new contracts for a few weeks or days were often discharged with a small part of the value received. From this plenty and fluctuating state of the medium sprung hosts of speculators and itinerant traders, who left their honest occupations for the prospect of immense gains, in a fraudulent business, that depended on no fixed principles, and the profits of which could be reduced to no certain calculations.

To increase these evils, a project was formed to fix the prices of articles, and restrain persons from giving or receiving more for any commodity than the price stated by authority. These regulating acts were reprobated by every man acquainted with commerce and finance; as they were intended to prevent an effect without removing the cause. To attempt to fix the value of money, while streams of bills were incessantly flowing from the treasury of the United States, was as ridiculous as an attempt to restrain the rising of water in rivers amidst showers of rain.

Notwithstanding all opposition, some States framed and attempted to enforce these regulating acts. The effect was, a momentary apparent stand in the price of articles; innumerable acts of collusion and evasion among the dishonest; numberless injuries done to the honest; and finally, a total disregard of all such regulations, and the consequent contempt of laws, and the authority of the magistrate.

During these fluctuations of business, occasioned by the variable value of money, people lost sight, in some measure, of the steady principles which had before governed their intercourse with each other. Speculation followed and relaxed the rigour of commericial obligations.

Industry likewise had suffered by the flood of money which had deluged the States. The prices of produce had risen in proportion to the quantity of money in circulation, and the demand for the commodities of the country. This made the acquisition of money easy, and indolence and luxury, with their train of desolating consequences, spread themselves among all descriptions of people.

But as soon as hostilities between Great Britain and America were suspended, the scene was changed. The bills emitted by Congress had for some time ceased to circulate; and the specie of the country was soon drained off to pay for foreign goods, the importations of which exceeded all calculations. Within two years from the close of the war, a scarcity of money was the general cry. The merchants found it impossible to collect their debts, and make punctual remittances to their creditors in Great Britain; and the consumers were driven to the necessity of retrenching their superfluities in living, and of returning to their ancient habits of industry and œconomy.

This change was, however, progressive and slow. In many of the States which suffered by the numerous debts they had contracted, and by the distresses of war, the people called aloud for emissions of paper bills to supply the deficiency of a medium. The depreciation of the continental bills was a recent example of the ill effects of such an expedient, and the impossibility of supporting the credit of paper was urged by the opposers of the measure as a substantial argument against adopting it. But nothing would silence the popular clamour; and many men of the first talents and eminence united their voices with that of the populace. Paper money had formerly maintained its credit, and been of singular utility: and past experience, notwithstanding a change of circumstances, was an argument in its favour that bore down all opposition.

Pennsylvania, although one of the richest States in the union, was the first to emit bills of credit, as a substitute for specie. But the revolution had removed the necessity of it, at the same time that it had destroyed the means by which its former credit had been supported. Lands, at the close of the war, were not rising in value—bills on London could not so readily be purchased, as while the province was dependent on Great Britain—the State was split into parties, one of which attempted to defeat the measures most popular with the other—and the depreciation of continental bills, with the injuries which it had done to individuals, inspired a general distrust of all public promises.

Notwithstanding a part of the money was loaned on good landed security, and the faith of that wealthy State pledged for the redemption of the whole at its nominal value, yet the advantages of specie as a medium of commerce, especially as an article of remittance to London, soon made a difference of ten per cent. between the bills of credit and specie. This difference may be considered rather as an appreciation of gold and silver, than a depreciation of paper; but its effects, in a commercial state, must be highly prejudicial. It opens the door to frauds]

[of all kinds, and frauds are usually practised on the honest and unsuspecting, especially upon all classes of labourers.

N. Carolina, S. Carolina, and Georgia, had recourse to the same wretched expedient to supply themselves with money; not reflecting that industry, frugality, and good commercial laws, are the only means of turning the balance of trade in favour of a country, and that this balance is the only permanent source of solid wealth and ready money. But the bills they emitted shared a worse fate than those of Pennsylvania; they expelled almost all the circulating cash from the States; they lost a great part of their nominal value, they impoverished the merchants, and embarrassed the planters.

The State of Virginia tolerated a base practice among the inhabitants of cutting dollars and smaller pieces of silver, in order to prevent it from leaving the State. This pernicious practice prevailed also in Georgia. A dollar was usually cut in five pieces, and each passed for a quarter; so that the man who cut it gained a quarter, or rather a fifth.

Maryland escaped the calamity of a paper currency. The house of delegates brought forward a bill for the emission of bills of credit to a large amount; but the Senate firmly and successfully resisted the pernicious scheme. The opposition between the two houses was violent and tumultuous; it threatened the State with anarchy; but the question was carried to the people, and the good sense of the Senate finally prevailed.

New Jersey is situated between two of the largest commercial towns in America, and consequently drained of specie. This State also emitted a large sum in bills of credit, which served to pay the interest of the public debt; but the currency depreciated, as in other States.

Rhode Island exhibited a melancholy proof of that licentiousness and anarchy which always follows a relaxation of the moral principles. In a rage for supplying the State with money, and filling every man's pocket without obliging him to earn it by his diligence, the legislature passed an act for making 100,000 pounds in bills; a sum much more than sufficient for a medium of trade in that State, even without any specie. The merchants in Newport and Providence opposed the act with firmness; and their opposition added fresh vigour to the resolution of the assembly, and induced them to enforce the scheme by a legal tender of a most extraordinary nature. They passed an act, ordaining that if any creditor should refuse to take their bills, for any debt whatever, the debtor might lodge the sum due with a justice of the peace, who should give notice of it in the public papers; and if the creditor did not appear and receive the money within six months from the first notice, his debt should be forfeited. This act astonished all honest men; and even the promoters of paper money-making in other States, and other principles, reprobated this act of Rhode Island, as wicked and oppressive. But the State was governed by faction. During the cry for paper money, a number of boisterous, ignorant men, were elected into the legislature, from the smaller towns in the State. Finding themselves united with a majority in opinion, they formed and executed any plan their inclination suggested; they opposed every measure that was agreeable to the mercantile interest; they not only made bad laws to suit their own wicked purposes, but appointed their own corrupt creatures to fill the judicial and executive departments. Their money depreciated sufficiently to answer all their vile purposes in the discharge of debts—business almost totally ceased, all confidence was lost, the State was thrown into confusion at home, and was execrated abroad.

Massachusetts Bay had the good fortune, amidst her political calamities, to prevent an emission of bills of credit. New Hampshire made no paper; but in the distresses which followed her loss of business after the war, the legislature made horses, lumber, and most articles of produce, a legal tender in the fulfilment of contracts It is doubtless unjust to oblige a creditor to receive any thing for his debt, which he had not in contemplation at the time of the contract. But as the commodities which were to be a tender by law, in New Hampshire, were of intrinsic value, bearing some proportion to the amount of the debt, the injustice of the law was less flagrant than that which enforced the tender of paper in Rhode Island. Indeed a similar law prevailed for some time in Massachusetts; and in Connecticut it is optional with the creditor, either to imprison the debtor or take land on execution at a price to be fixed by three indifferent freeholders; provided no other means of payment shall appear to satisfy the demand. It must not, however, be omitted, that while the most flourishing commercial States introduced a paper medium, to the great injury of honest men, a bill for an emission of paper in Connec-]

[ticut, where there was very little specie, could never command more than one-eighth of the votes of the legislature. The movers of the bill hardly escaped ridicule; so generally was the measure reprobated as a source of frauds and public mischief.

The legislature of New York, a State that had the least necessity and apology for making paper money, as her commercial advantages always furnish her with specie sufficient for a medium, issued a large sum in bills of credit, which supported their value better than the currency of any other State. Still the paper raised the value of specie, which is always in demand for exportation, and this difference of exchange between paper and specie ever exposes commerce to most of the inconveniencies resulting from a depreciated medium.

Such is the history of paper money thus far; a miserable substitute for real coin, in a country where the reins of government are too weak to compel the fulfilment of public engagements, and where all confidence in public faith is wanting.

While the States were thus endeavouring to repair the loss of specie by empty promises, and to support their business by shadows, rather than by reality, the British ministry formed some commercial regulations that deprived them of the profits of their trade to the West Indies and Great Britain. Heavy duties were laid upon such articles as were remitted to the London merchants for their goods, and such were the duties upon American bottoms, that the States were almost wholly deprived of the carrying trade. A prohibition was laid upon the produce of the United States, shipped to the English West India Islands in American-built vessels, and in those manned by American seamen. These restrictions fell heavy upon the Eastern States, which depended much upon ship-building for the support of their trade; and they materially injured the business of the other States.

Without a union that was able to form and execute a general system of commercial regulations, some of the States attempted to impose restraints upon the British trade that should indemnify the merchant for the losses he had suffered, or induce the British ministry to enter into a commercial treaty, and relax the rigour of their navigation laws. These measures, however, produced nothing but mischief. The States did not act in concert, and the restraints laid on the trade of one State operated to throw the business into the hands of its neighbour. Massachusetts, in her zeal to counteract the effect of the English navigation laws, laid enormous duties upon British goods imported into that State; but the other States did not adopt a similar measure; and the loss of business soon obliged that State to repeal or suspend the law. Thus when Pennsylvania laid heavy duties on British goods, Delaware and New Jersey made a number of free ports to encourage the landing of goods within the limits of those States; and the duties in Pennsylvania served no purpose but to create smuggling.

Thus divided, the States began to feel their weakness: most of the legislatures had neglected to comply with the requisitions of Congress for furnishing the federal treasury; the resolves of Congress were disregarded; the proposition for a general impost to be laid and collected by Congress was negatived, first by Rhode Island, and afterwards by New York. The British troops continued, under pretence of a breach of treaty on the part of America, to hold possession of the forts on the frontiers of the States. Many of the States individually were infested with popular commotions or iniquitous tender laws, while they were oppressed with public debts; the certificates or public notes had lost most of their value, and circulated merely as the objects of speculation; Congress lost their respectability, and the United States their credit and importance.

In the midst of these calamities, a proposition was made in 1785, in the House of Delegates in Virginia, to appoint Commissioners to meet such as might be appointed in the other States, who should form a system of commercial regulations for the United States, and recommend it to the several legislatures for adoption. Commissioners were accordingly appointed, and a request was made to the legislatures of the other States to accede to the proposition. Accordingly, several of the States appointed Commissioners, who met at Annapolis in the summer of 1786, to consult what measures should be taken to unite the States in some general and efficient commercial system. But as the States were not all represented, and the powers of the Commissioners were, in their opinion, too limited to propose a system of regulations adequate to the purposes of government, they agreed to recommend a general convention to be held at Philadelphia the next year, with powers to frame a general plan of government for the United States. This]

[measure appeared to the Commissioners absolutely necessary. The old confederation was essentially defective: it was destitute of almost every principle necessary to give effect to legislation.

It was defective in the article of legislating over States, instead of individuals. All history testifies that recommendations will not operate as laws, and compulsion cannot be exercised over States without violence, war, and anarchy. The confederation was also destitute of a sanction to its laws. When resolutions were passed in Congress, there was no power to compel obedience by fine, by suspension of privileges, or other means: it was also destitute of a guarantee for the State governments. Had one State been invaded by its neighbour, the Union was not constitutionally bound to assist in repelling the invasion, and supporting the constitution of the invaded State. The confederation was further deficient in the principle of apportioning the quotas of money to be furnished by each State; in a want of power to form commercial laws, and to raise troops for the defence and security of the Union; in the equal suffrage of the States, which placed Rhode Island on a footing in Congress with Virginia; and to crown all the defects, we may add the want of a judiciary power, to define the laws of the Union, and to reconcile the contradictory decisions of a number of independent judicatories.

These and many inferior defects were obvious to the Commissioners, and therefore they urged a general convention, with powers to form, and offer to the consideration of the States, a system of general government that should be less exceptionable: accordingly, in May, 1787, delegates from all the States, except Rhode Island, assembled at Philadelphia, and chose General Washington for their President. After four months deliberation, in which the clashing interests of the several States appeared in all their force, the convention agreed to recommend the plan of federal government, which we have already recited.

As soon as the plan of the federal constitution was submitted to the legislatures of the several States, they proceeded to take measures for collecting the sense of the people upon the propriety of adopting it. In the small State of Delaware, a convention was called in November, which, after a few days deliberation, ratified the constitution without a dissenting voice.

In the convention of Pennsylvania, held the same month, there was a spirited opposition to the new form of government. The debates were long and interesting. Great abilities and firmness were displayed on both sides; but, on the 13th of December, the constitution was received by two-thirds of the members. The minority were dissatisfied; and, with an obstinacy that ill became the representatives of a free people, published their reasons of dissent, which were calculated to inflame a party already violent, and which, in fact, produced some disturbances in the western part of the State.

In New Jersey, the convention which met in December, were unanimous in adopting the constitution; as was likewise that of Georgia.

In Connecticut, there was some opposition; but the constitution was, on the 9th of January, 1788, ratified by three-fourths of the votes in convention, and the minority peaceably acquiesced in the decision.

In Massachusetts, the opposition was large and respectable. The convention, consisting of more than 300 delegates, were assembled in January, and continued their debates, with great candour and liberality, about five weeks. At length the question was carried for the constitution by a small majority; and the minority, with that manly condescension which becomes great minds, submitted to the measure, and united to support the government.

In New Hampshire, the federal cause was for some time doubtful. The greatest number of the delegates in convention were, at first, on the side of the opposition; and some, who might have had their objections removed by the discussion of the subject, were instructed to reject the constitution. Although the instructions of constituents cannot, on the true principles of representation, be binding upon a deputy, in any legislative assembly, because his constituents are but a part of the State, and have not heard the arguments and objections of the whole; whereas his act is to affect the whole State, and therefore is to be directed by the sense or wisdom of the whole, collected in the legislative assembly; yet the delegates in the New Hampshire convention conceived very erroneously, that the sense of the freemen in the towns, those little districts, where no act of legislation can be performed, imposed a restraint upon their own wills. An adjournment was therefore moved and carried. This gave the people opportunity to gain a farther knowledge of the merits of the constitution; and at the second meeting of the convention it was ratified by a respectable majority.

In Maryland, several men of abilities appeared]

[in the opposition, and were unremitted in their endeavours to persuade the people, that the proposed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their dearest rights; yet in convention it appeared, that five-sixths of the voices were in favour of it.

In S. Carolina, the opposition was respectable; but two-thirds of the convention appeared to advocate and vote for the constitution.

In Virginia, many of the principal characters opposed the ratification of the constitution with great abilities and industry; but, after a full discussion of the subject, a small majority, of a numerous convention, appeared for its adoption.

In New York, two-thirds of the delegates in convention were, at their first meeting, determined to reject the constitution. Here, therefore, the debates were the most interesting, and the event extremely doubtful. The argument was managed with uncommon address and abilities on both sides of the question. But during the session, the 9th and 10th States had acceded to the proposed plan, so that by the constitution, Congress were empowered to issue an ordinance for organizing the new government. This event placed the opposition on new ground; and the expediency of uniting with the other States—the generous motives of conciliating all differences, and the danger of a rejection, influenced a respectable number, who were originally opposed to the constitution, to join the federal interest. The constitution was accordingly ratified by a small majority; but the ratification was accompanied here, as in Virginia, with a bill of rights, declaratory of the sense of the convention as to certain great principles, and with a catalogue of amendments, which were to be recommended to the consideration of the new Congress, and the several state legislatures.

N. Carolina met in convention in July, to deliberate on the new constitution. After a short session, they rejected it by a majority of 176 against 76. In November, 1789, however, this State again met in convention, and ratified the constitution by a large majority.

Rhode Island was doomed to be the sport of a blind and singular policy. The legislature, in consistency with the measures which had been before pursued, did not call a convention to collect the sense of the State upon the proposed constitution; but in an unconstitutional and absurd manner, submitted the plan of government to the consideration of the people. Accordingly, it was brought before town-meetings, and in most of them rejected. In some of the large towns, particularly in Newport and Providence, the people collected and resolved with great propriety, that they could not take up the subject; and that the proposition for embracing or rejecting the federal constitution could come before no tribunal but that of the State in convention or legislature. On May 24, 1790, a convention of this State met at Newport, and on the 29th, adopted the constitution by a majority of two only.

Vermont, in convention at Bennington, January 10, 1791, ratified the constitution of the United States by a great majority.

The following exhibits at one view the order, time, &c. in which the several States ratified the Federal Constitution:

			Majority.
Delaware,	December 3, 1787,	unanimously.	
Pennsylvania,	December 13,	46 to 23	23
New Jersey,	December 19,	unanimously.	
Georgia,	January 2, 1788,	unanimously.	
Connecticut,	January 9,	128 to 40	88
Massachusetts,	February 6,	187 to 168	19
Maryland,	April 28,	63 to 12	51
S. Carolina,	May 23,	149 to 73	76
New Hampshire,	June 21,	57 to 46	11
Virginia,	June 25,	89 to 79	10
New York,	July 26,	30 to 25	5
N. Carolina,	November 27, 1789,	193 to 75	118
Rhode Island,	May 29, 1790,		2
Vermont,	January 10, 1791,	by a great majority.	

Kentucky.]

[From the moment the proceedings of the general convention at Philadelphia transpired, the public mind was exceedingly agitated, and suspended between hope and fear, until nine States had ratified their plan of a federal government. Indeed the anxiety continued until Virginia and New York had acceded to the system. But this did not prevent the demonstrations of their joy on the accession of each State.

On the ratification in Massachusetts, the citizens of Boston, in the elevation of their joy, formed a procession in honour of the happy event, which was novel, splendid, and magnificent. This example was afterwards followed, and in some instances improved upon, in Baltimore, Charleston, Philadelphia, Newhaven, Portsmouth, and New York, successively. Nothing could equal the beauty and grandeur of these exhibitions. A ship was mounted upon wheels, and drawn through the streets; mechanics erected stages, and exhibited specimens of labour in their several occupations as they moved along the road; flags with emblems, descriptive of all the arts and of the federal union, were invented and displayed in honour of the government; multitudes of all ranks in life assembled to view the splendid scenes; while sobriety, joy, and harmony, marked the brilliant exhibitions, by which the Americans celebrated the establishment of their empire.

On March 3, 1789, the delegates from the 11 States, which at that time had ratified the constitution, assembled at New York, where a convenient and elegant building had been prepared for their accommodation. On opening and counting the votes for President, it was found that George Washington was unanimously elected to that dignified office, and that John Adams was chosen Vice-President. The annunciation of the choice of the first and second magistrates of the United States occasioned a general diffusion of joy among the friends to the union, and fully evinced that these eminent characters were the choice of the people.

On April 30, 1789, George Washington was inaugurated President of the United States of America, in the city of New York. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of Federal Hall, in the view of many thousand spectators. The oath was administered by Chancellor Livingston. Several circumstances concurred to render the scene unusually solemn.

This great man has been succeeded in the presidency by Mr. Adams, Mr. Jefferson, and Mr. Maddison, the latter of whom at present holds that office, and of the policy of whose measures we shall be enabled to judge with some precision by the following retrospect of the relations in which the Americans seem of late years to have stood with the European powers.

It would however not be doing justice to the subject of which we are treating were it not generally to be observed, that hitherto the deliberations of the legislature of the union, have been for the most part marked with wisdom, and the measures they have adopted have been productive of great national prosperity. The wise appointments to office, which, in general, have been made—the establishment of a revenue and judiciary system, and of a national bank—the assumption of the debts of the individual States, and the encouragement that has been given to manufactures, commerce, literature, and to useful inventions, have, it must be confessed, opened a fair prospect, if not of general peace or union, at least of increasing respectability and importance, and given a great additional preponderancy to that which they had at first enjoyed in the scale of nations.

Analysis of the Berlin and Milan Decrees, of the several Orders in Council, and of the American Seamen, Non-importation and Embargo Acts.

From the importance and universal interest which have attached to the Orders of Council, it is desirable that a full and correct account of them should be recorded. The subject is unquestionably difficult to be understood, but it has been much simplified by an able publication, from which the following illustrations are, for the most part, selected; intending to present the whole series of French, British, and American proceedings in one view, and to give an impartial, compendious, and chronological statement of the several official documents which have been produced, interspersing and subjoining such observations as may tend to exhibit the whole case in the clearest and truest point of view.

I. The first of these documents is the Berlin Decree, so called because it was issued from the camp near that city, on November 21, 1806. It consists of two parts:—

1st. A statement of the wrongs done by England.

2d. Of the measures which these wrongs have obliged the Emperor Napoleon to adopt.

The first part states: "That England has]

[ceased to observe the laws of civilised nations—that she considers the individuals of a hostile nation as enemies—that she seizes as prize the property of such individuals—that she blockades commercial ports, bays, and mouths of rivers, and other places not fortified—that she declares places to be in a state of blockade, where she has no actual force to enforce the blockade—that this abuse is intended to aggrandise the commerce and industry of England, by means of the commerce and industry of the Continent—that those who traffic in English commodities on the Continent second her views and render themselves her accomplices—that this conduct of England is worthy the age of barbarism, and is advantageous to her at the expense of every other nation—that it is just to attack her with the same weapons which she employs."

And in pursuance of this assertion the second part proceeds to decree:—

"—that the British islands are in a state of blockade.

"—that all commerce and correspondence with the British isles are prohibited.

"—that letters and packets addressed to England or to Englishmen, or written in English, shall be intercepted.

"—that every British individual whom the troops of France or those of her allies can lay hold of, shall be a prisoner of war.

"—that every warehouse, any commodity, every article of commerce which may belong to a British subject, is good prize.

"—that the trade in English goods is prohibited, and every article that belongs to England, or is the produce of her manufactories or colonies, is good prize.

"—that no ship from England or her colonies, or which shall have touched there, shall be admitted into any harbour.

"—that this Decree shall be communicated to all our allies whose subjects as well as those of France have been victims of the injustice and barbarity of the English maritime code.

"—and this Decree is further stated to be in force, and considered as a fixed and fundamental law of the French empire, as long as England shall adhere to the principles herein complained of."

The sum of this Decree is, that England shall be erased from the list of commercial and even civilised nations, until she abandons her maritime code which has raised her to her present pitch of superiority over other nations, and that France and her allies and dependants are pledged and required invariably to maintain this which has been since called the continental system, till England shall have been reduced to make these concessions.

II. On November 24, 1806, the above decree was recapitulated in a proclamation from the French minister to the senate of Hamburgh, which states:—

"That as several of the citizens of Hamburgh were notoriously engaged in trade with England, the Emperor of the French was obliged to take possession of the city in order to execute his decree."

This threat was the same day executed by Marshal Mortier, at the head of a division of the French army.

This proclamation and occupation of Hamburgh was particularly important, as being the first act of that principle on which France has ever since, as we shall see, proceeded, of not only extending her continental system to all places within her reach, but actually seizing upon neutral countries, that she might extend the continental system to them; so that the original violence and injustice against England became the source and pretence of more violence and injustice against all rights and laws of nations, and an excuse for the most outrageous usurpation and hostile seizure of neutral territory that has ever been attempted.

III. These proceedings of the government of France produced, on the part of England, the measure which is called Lord Grey's Order in Council, because his Lordship was Secretary of State at the time it was issued—January 7, 1807. This order states:—

"That the decrees issued by the French government to prohibit the commerce of neutral nations with the British dominions, or in their produce or manufactures, are in violation of the usages of war.

"—that such attempts on the part of the enemy would give his Majesty an unquestionable right of retaliation, and would warrant his Majesty in enforcing against all commerce with France, the same prohibition which she vainly hopes to effect against us.

"—that his Majesty, though unwilling to proceed to these extremities, yet feels himself bound not to suffer such measures to be taken by the enemy, without some step on his part to restrain this violence, and to retort upon them the evils of their own injustice.]

[" — and that therefore it is ordered, that no vessel shall be permitted to trade from one port to another belonging to France or her allies, or so far under her control that British vessels may not freely trade thereat."

This was, as it expresses itself to be, a mitigated measure of retaliation, one intended rather to call France to a sense of her injustice, and the neutrals to a sense of their own duty, than to inflict a vengeance on the enemy adequate to his aggression; but it very properly states the right in Great Britain to go the whole length of complete retaliation; and it strongly intimates that if this moderate proceeding should fail of its effect, more effective, but equally justifiable modes of retaliation would be adopted.

Shortly after the publication of this order, Lord Grenville's and Lord Grey's ministry went out of power, and that of the Duke of Portland, which included Mr. Perceval and Mr Canning, came in. Their first proceeding in this matter was on November 11, 1807; when finding the measures of further retaliation, threatened in Lord Grey's order of January preceding, were become absolutely necessary from the increasing violence of the French, and the continued supineness of the neutrals, they published an Order in Council, which is the next document that follows:—

IV. On November 11, 1807, the Duke of Portland's administration issued two Orders in Council; the first of which states:—

" — that the Order of the 7th January has not effected the desired purpose either of compelling the enemy to recall his Orders, or of inducing neutral nations to interpose against them; but, on the contrary, that they have been recently enforced with increased vigour.

" — that his Majesty is therefore obliged to take further measures for vindicating the just rights and maritime powers of his people, which are not more essential to our own safety, than to the independence and general happiness of mankind; and in pursuance of these principles of retaliation (already inserted in the first Order) all the ports of France and her allies, and all other ports or places in Europe from which the British flag is excluded, shall be considered in a state of blockade; and all their goods and manufactures shall be considered as lawful prize, thus retaliating upon France and her allies, their own violence.

" — that his Majesty would of course be justified in making this retaliation, as unqualified and without limit, as the original offence; but that unwilling to subject neutrals to more inconvenience than is necessary, he will permit to neutrals such trade with the enemy's ports, as may be carried on directly with the ports of his Majesty's dominions, under several specifications and conditions which are set forth as favourable exceptions to the general rules of blockade."

The second Order in Council of this date sets forth:

" — that articles of the growth or manufacture of foreign countries cannot be by law (namely, the Navigation Act), imported into Great Britain, except in British ships, or the native shipping of the country itself which produces the goods.

" — that in consequence of the former order of this date, which says, that all neutral trade with France must touch at a British port, it is expedient to relax, in some degree, this law, and to permit the shipping of any friendly or neutral country to import into Great Britain the produce or manufactures of countries at war with her.

" — that all goods so imported shall be liable to the same duties, and under the same warehousing regulation as if imported according to the Navigation Act."

The sum of these Orders in Council is, that France having declared that there shall be no trade in communication with England, his Majesty resolves that the ports of France, and every port from which, by the control of France, the British flag is excluded, shall have no trade except to or from a British port; but that his Majesty is still desirous to encourage and protect neutral commerce, as far as is consistent with such an opposition to the enemy's measures, as is essential to the safety and prosperity of the British dominions.

Next comes the Decree, dated Milan, December 17, and published in Paris, December 26, 1807, reciting:

" — that the ships of neutral and friendly powers are, by the English Orders in Council of the 11th of November, made liable not only to be searched, but to be detained in England, and to pay a tax rateable per centum on the cargo.

" — that, by these acts, the British government denationalizes ships of every nation; and that it is not competent to any sovereign or country to submit to this degradation of the neutral flag, as England would construe such submission into an acquiescence in her right to do so, as she has already availed herself of the tolerance of other governments, to establish the infamous principle that free ships do not make free goods,]

[and to give the right of blockade an arbitrary extension, which infringes on the sovereignty of every state, and it is therefore decreed,

" — that every ship, to whatever nation it may belong, which shall have submitted to be searched by an English ship, or to a voyage to England, or shall have paid any English tax, is, for that alone, declared to be denationalized, to have forfeited the protection of its own sovereign, and to have become English property.

" — that all such ships, whether entering the ports of France, or her allies, or met at sea, are good prizes.

" — that the British islands are in a state of blockade, both by sea and land, and that all vessels sailing from England, or any of her colonies, or the port of any of her allies, to England or her colonies, or the port of an ally, are declared good and lawful prize.

" — that these measures (which are resorted to only in just retaliation of the barbarous system adopted by England, which assimilates its legislation to that of Algiers), shall cease to have effect with respect to all nations who shall have the firmness to compel the English government to respect their flag. They shall continue to be rigorously enforced as long as that government does not return to the principle of the law of nations, which regulates the relation of civilised states in a state of war. The provisions of the present Decree shall be abrogated and null, in fact, as soon as the English abide again by the principles of the law of nations, which are also the principles of justice and honour."

A good deal of discussion arose with America about the operation of these Decrees and Orders upon the American trade; and in order to simplify the construction of the latter, and to apply the principle of retaliation more directly against France herself, and with less injury to neutrals, the Orders of November 1807, were superseded by that of April 26, 1809; which declares " the whole coast of France and her dominions, as far northward as the river Ems, and southward to Pesaro and Orbitello in Italy, to be under blockade, and all vessels coming from any port whatever to any French port, liable to capture and condemnation;" the effect of this order was to open all ports, not actually ports of France, even though the British flag should be excluded therefrom, to neutral commerce, and to place France, and France only, in the precise situation in which, by her decrees, she endeavours to place Great Britain.

V. By a decree of the French government, issued at Fontainbleau on October 19, 1810, it was expressly declared, " that in pursuance of the 4th and 5th articles of the Berlin decrees, all kinds of British merchandise and manufactures which may be discovered in the custom-houses, or other places of France, Holland, the Grand Duchy of Berg, the Hans Towns, (from the Mayne to the sea), the kingdom of Italy, the Illyrian provinces, the kingdom of Naples, and in such towns of Spain and their vicinities as may be occupied by French troops, shall be confiscated and burned."

Thus then the matter stood; on the side of France the decrees of Berlin and Milan were in force, and to them were opposed the British order of April 26, 1809; and as long as the blockade of England by France remained unrepealed, so long did England possess an undoubted right to persist in her system of retaliation.

It now becomes necessary to explain shortly the conduct of America towards England and France respectively: from which we shall judge whether America has always acted with a strict impartiality towards the two belligerents, and whether she really had any fair ground of complaint against Great Britain.

VI. A very short time before France began to act upon these new principles, a treaty of commerce had been, in 1806, negotiated at London (between Lords Holland and Auckland on the part of England, and Messrs. Munroe and Pinckney on that of America), and sent over to America to be ratified: but the Berlin decree having appeared almost at the moment of the signature of this treaty, it was accompanied by a declaration by Lords Holland and Auckland on the part of England:

" That in consequence of the new and extraordinary measures of hostility on the part of France, as stated in the Berlin Decree, Great Britain reserved to herself (if the threats should be executed, and that neutrals should acquiesce in such usurpations) the right of retaliating on the enemy in such manner as circumstances might require."

VII. This treaty, the President of the United States refused to ratify; principally " because the question of impressing seamen was not definitively settled." The British government replied, " that this was a subject of much detail, and of considerable difficulty, arising out of the almost impossibility of distinguishing British subjects from Americans: and, it added, that it would be highly inexpedient that the general treaty should be lost, or even delayed on this account; that]

[Great Britain was ready immediately to proceed in a separate negociation in this point; and that in the mean time, her officers should be ordered to exercise the right of search and impressment, with the greatest possible forbearance."

These arguments and this proposition did not, however, induce the American President to ratify the treaty.

It unfortunately happened, that in June, 1807, the commanding officer of his Majesty's ship Leopard having understood that some deserters from his ship had been received on board the American frigate Chesapeake, and having in vain required their release from the American captain, attacked the Chesapeake at sea, and obliged her to strike; but he then contented himself with taking out of her his own men, and restored the ship to the American commander. An event of this nature called for, and received the immediate disavowal of his Majesty's government; the captain was tried, and his admiral superseded; and Mr. Rose was sent without loss of time to America to offer reparation, and to state to the American government, "that Great Britain did not pretend to a right to demand by force any sailors whatever from the national ship of a power with which she was on terms of peace and amity." In the mean time the President had issued a proclamation, excluding all English ships of war from the American harbours.

X. Exclusive of this affair of the Chesapeake, America appeared, in the spring of 1808, to have considered herself equally aggrieved by the acts of both countries.

In this view they laid a general embargo upon all the shipping in their ports, and denied themselves all commercial intercourse whatever with any European State.

XI. This act of the American government was very unpopular throughout the Union, and on March 1, 1809, the non-intercourse law was substituted in its place, "by which the commerce of America was opened to all the world except to England and France, and British and French ships of war were equally excluded prospectively from the American ports."

XII. In the interval, Mr. Canning had instructed Mr. Erskine, his Majesty's minister, to offer to America "a reciprocal repeal of the prohibitive laws on both sides upon certain terms; namely, 1st. The enforcement of the non-intercourse and non-importation acts against France. 2dly, The renunciation on the part of America of all trade with the enemies' colonies, from which she was excluded during peace. 3dly, Great Britain to enforce the American embargo against trade with France, or powers acting under her decrees.

XIII. In the mean time the French government, in a decree dated from Rambouillet, March 23, 1810, declared, "that from May 20, 1809, all American vessels which should enter the French ports, or ports occupied by French troops, should be sold and sequestered." This act however was not made known till May 14, 1810.

XIV. Notwithstanding these acts of violence on the part of France, America could not be persuaded that her honour and interests demanded some immediate act of retaliation, and nothing was done till the non-intercourse act expired, when an act of the Congress was passed, eventually renewing certain parts of the non-intercourse act in certain events. By this act it was decreed, "that in case either of the belligerents should cease to violate the neutral rights of America before February 2, 1811, the non-importation articles of the non-intercourse act should be revived against the other." By this act, America still contemplated France and England equally injuring her commerce; and contented herself with merely complaining, through her minister, of the operation of the Rambouillet decree, though it was, at the same time, characterised by America "as a signal aggression on the principles of justice and good faith."

XV. The condition thus offered by America, France determined speciously to accept; but in accepting it to act in such a manner as still to reap the advantages accruing from her decrees, without relieving England from her part of the pressure occasioned by them.

XVI. As England could not, upon this insidious offer, accept the first part of the alternative offered by France, America in her turn accepted the second, and declared that she would cause her flag to be respected: but as there would be some inconvenience in demanding from England the abandonment of her most sacred maritime rights, such as the right of visiting and searching a neutral ship for enemy's property—the right of blockading, by actual force, the ports and harbours and rivers of the enemy's coast—the right of precluding a neutral from carrying on, in time of war, the trade of a belligerent, to which she is not admitted in time of peace, (all of which and more indeed was demanded by France, and apparently acceded to by America) the Government and Congress of the United States deemed it to be sufficiently conformable to the demands of France, "that they should exclude British]

[ships of war from their ports, and prohibit all importation of British produce;" and France seemed to consent to consider "these restrictions as tantamount to causing the American flag to be respected, and as rescuing the American ships from the imputation of being denationalized." Upon this principle the President proclaimed the renewal of the non importation articles of the non-intercourse act against Great Britain on November 2, 1810, and the Congress enacted the same by law on February 28, 1811. When this act passed, the relations of peace and commercial intercourse were restored between France and America, and French ships were allowed to enter into American ports, at a time when "France still retained many millions of American property seized under the Rambouillet decree," which had had a retrospective effect for the space of 12 months, and when the operation of the burning decree was carried into effect, without any regard whether or not the produce of British industry, so destroyed, had legally become, by purchase or barter, the "bona fide property of neutral merchants."

With respect to England, who by the act of February 28, 1811, was put upon the footing of an enemy, the only source of complaint which America possessed, was that the blockade of the French coast was still persisted in and enforced, as the only effectual means of retaliating upon the violent and unjust decrees of the enemy.

XVII. On November 1, 1811, Mr. Foster, his Majesty's minister in America, was at length enabled to bring to a conclusion the differences which had arisen on the Chesapeake affair, without sacrificing the rights of Great Britain, or derogating from the honour of his Majesty's crown; but it cannot be said, that the American government accepted the concession and atonement with either dignity or grace.

XVIII. While America was thus asserting that the French decrees were repealed, the minister of foreign relations at Paris put an end to all doubt on the subject, by an official report to the Emperor, dated March 10, 1812, which sets forth, first, an explanation of the maritime laws of the nations, viz.

"The flag covers merchandise; the goods of an enemy under a neutral flag are neutral, and the goods of a neutral under an enemy's flag are enemy's goods—the only goods not covered by the flag, is contraband of war; and the only contraband of war are arms and ammunition.—In visiting neutrals, a belligerent must send only a few men in a boat, but the belligerent ship must keep out of cannon shot.—Neutrals may trade between one enemy's port to another, and between enemy's and neutral ports—the only ports excepted, are those really blockaded; and ports really blockaded, are those only which are actually invested, besieged, and in danger of being taken—such are the duties of belligerents and the rights of neutrals." The report then proceeds to state, "that the Berlin and Milan decrees have rendered the manufacturing towns of Great Britain deserts—distress has succeeded prosperity; and the disappearance of money and the want of employment endangers the public tranquillity;" and then it denounces that, "until Great Britain recalls her orders in council, and submits to the principles of maritime law abovementioned, the French decrees must subsist against Great Britain, and such neutrals as should allow their flags to be denationalized;" and finally, the report avows, "that nothing will divert the French Emperor from the objects of these decrees,—that he has already, for this purpose, annexed to France, Holland, the Hans Towns and the coasts from the Zuyder Zee to the Baltic, that no ports of the Continent must remain open, either to English trade or denationalized neutrals; and that all the disposable force of the French empire shall be directed to every part of the continent, where British and denationalized flags still find admittance; and, finally, this system shall be persevered in, till England, banished from the continent and separated from all other countries, shall return to the laws of nations recognized by the treaty of Utrecht."

The sum of this report is, that the Berlin and Milan decrees are in full force, and must continue to be so, until England shall not only recall her orders in council, but shall also abandon all her great maritime rights; and that these decrees subsist against not England alone, but America, and all other countries which shall not unite in an endeavour to overthrow the ancient system of maritime law; and further, that France considers herself authorized to invade and seize any neutral territory whatsoever, for the sole object of excluding all British trade from the Continent, and that all his violent and outrageous usurpations in Holland, Germany, and the shores of the Baltic, have been prompted, and are attempted to be justified by this motive.

XIX. In order to bring to a distinct issue the verbal discussion between England and America, and to place the relative measures of England and France clearly before the neutrals; the British government on April 21, 1812, put forth]

[to the public a declaration and order in council, detailing "the present state of the contest between the two belligerents"—and stating "that as soon as the Berlin and Milan decrees are revoked, the orders in council are abrogated—and engaging beforehand that a proof of the absolute repeal of the French decrees produced in an Admiralty court shall be held, in fact, to be a satisfactory proof of the absolute revocation of the British orders in council.

XX. Since this declaration, but before it reached America, an embargo was laid on by an act of Congress for 90 days, from April 4, 1812.

XXI. Also, by a bill brought into Congress in the spring of this year, entitled "a bill for the more effectual protection of American seamen," it is enacted, "that any British or other subjects, proved to have been guilty of impressing American seamen, shall be deemed *pirates* and *felons*, and punished with death; such persons to be tried on the spot, wherever they may be found.

"That the President be authorized to order the ships of war of the United States, to bring in any foreign armed vessels that may be found on the coast, molesting American ships, or *hovering on their shores*.

"That American seamen who shall have been impressed, shall be authorized to levy on British debts, or British property in America, as an indemnification for the time of detention, at the rate of 30 dollars a month each."

By the farther clauses of this bill, the American flag is made to cover all persons on board, excepting such as may be in the actual service of Great Britain; and it is ordered that the government do seize so many British subjects in the United States, or in the *territories of Great Britain*, as may be equivalent to the number of Americans detained on board the British navy; these hostages to be detained until a regular exchange by the usual way of cartel.

XXII. On the 18th of June war was actually declared by the United States against Great Britain; but the revocation of the Orders in Council, which took place June 23, had not then reached them, whereupon the government "*forbore, at that time, to direct Letters of Marque and Reprisal to be issued against the ships, goods, and citizens of the said United States of America, under the expectation that the said government would, upon the notification of the Order in Council of the 23d of June last, forthwith recall and annul the said declaration of war against His Majesty.*"

This leniency, (communicated by an Order in Council, October 18, 1812), had no effect, and we accordingly find that, on December 18 of the year following (1813) an embargo law passed both Houses of Congress to continue for one year, wherein it was enacted, that "*all neutral vessels would discharge and clear out, on pain of confiscation, within 14 days.*"

XXIII. On the 7th of April of this year (1814) the embargo and non-importation acts were repealed, by a majority of 115 to 37. By a clause in this act all British produce and manufactures are allowed to be imported into the United States, even in neutral bottoms: it is also enacted,

"Sec. 3. That no foreign ship or vessel shall receive a clearance, or be permitted to depart from the United States, whose officers and crew shall not consist wholly of the citizens or subjects of the country to which such ship or vessel shall belong, or of a country in amity with the United States." And no citizen of those States is permitted to depart in such ship or vessel without a passport from the President.

XXIV. On the 25th of April the blockade was extended to all the American ports by Sir Borlase Warren.

Conclusion.—It may be observed by way of a summary view of the above decrees, that it was impossible that Great Britain could relinquish the principle of retaliation. Great Britain, who is herself the main spring of the commerce of the world, must more than any other country regret and suffer from the interruptions of trade; but would trade have revived if she had receded? Will commerce thrive, if she abandons her ancient maritime rights? For it is nothing less than this, that France demanded, and America endeavoured collaterally to enforce.

If America admits that France, under the pretence of municipal regulations, had a right to prohibit all commerce with Great Britain; and that British produce and manufactures (to whomsoever belonging or wherever found, not only in France itself, but in countries under her controul, or in territories adjoining to France, and subject to invasion from her on this very pretence), were to be seized, confiscated, and burned; if, we say, America suffered all these infractions of neutral rights, without remonstrance or complaint, it is plain, that, as far as she was concerned, she played into the hands of France, and lent her assistance to the ruin of England.

But what effects would the repeal of the Orders in Council actually have had, had not the decrees of Berlin and Milan been virtually nullified by the impracticability of their enforcement? We will enumerate them.]

[1. It would have restored the American trade, and that portion of manufactures which are usually consumed in America itself would immediately have revived.

2. It would have opened to England no other market for any branch of manufacturing whatsoever than the home market of America—for France having a right, by municipal regulations, to exclude British articles from her territory, and to extend for this purpose her territory over the whole face of Europe; any article of British produce and manufacture, imported by an American, would have been as liable to be confiscated or burned as before such repeal.

3. France would have been relieved from all the pressure she then felt. America would have supplied her with all kinds of raw materials, as well as of colonial produce, and would have conveyed to her, from the distant parts of Europe, all kinds of stores and timber, and the various materials of naval strength. France would have had just what trade she pleased; she would have continued the prohibition, all over Europe, of British manufactures, with a double view, first to encourage her own, and next to ruin that of her enemy. And all inconvenience and pressure being thus removed from her, there would no longer have existed any means or hopes of forcing her to a system more equitable towards Great Britain.

4. America would have become the carrier of the world.—She and France would have divided the trade of the globe; and Great Britain, with all her command of the sea, would have the mortification to have seen the ocean covered with the commerce of France, protected under the American flag.

5. The British shipping interest would have been annihilated, and that of America would have risen up in its stead.—The E. and W. Indies and the home-coasting trade would alone have remained to Britain; and the two former she should not long have possessed, in competition with a rival whose means of ship building are inexhaustible; whose flag would have been the only neutral flag in the world; whose ships alone could have traded at the ports of the continent of Europe; whose rates of freight and insurance would have been proportionably small; in short, who would have had all possible advantages, while Great Britain would have had to labour with every possible disadvantage.

6. All British produce and manufacture would have declined and expired, except only those for American or home consumption; because America, which would then have brought the produce of all other countries to France, would have returned with the manufacture of France to all other countries. It may be said, that England would have undersold France: and so she certainly would in a fair state of trade; but, excluded from Europe and rivalled by America, there would have remained to her neither the means nor motives of commercial enterprise.

7. Nor would the American market itself have been of the advantage to Great Britain that at first appears; much of the ironwork, and all the linens of Germany would soon have undersold the similar articles of English or Irish manufacture; and the increased intercourse between America and France, would inevitably have obliged the merchants of the former to have taken returns in the produce of France, or the continent of Europe; and, by degrees, it would have been found that the natural result of such an intercourse would have been the ADVANCEMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND THE INFLUENCE OF FRANCE, AND THE DECLINE OF THOSE OF GREAT BRITAIN.—To the steady prevention of which the British councils have so mutually and so successfully been exerted.

Notices of the Campaign of 1812 *and* 1813.

Russian Mediation.

We have already said that war had been officially declared, June 18, 1812. On the 12th of the following month the invasion of Upper Canada took place, under the command of Brigadier-general Hull, who secured a post at Sandwich, and succeeded in forcing Major-general Brock, who commanded the troops of his Britannic Majesty, to surrender Fort Detroit, August 16; but, before the end of the year, the whole of General Hull's army surrendered to the English. It is true, however, that the attacks of the British on Craney Island, on Fort Snugs, on Sacketts Harbour, and on Sandusky, were vigorously and successfully repulsed; and the movements of the American army had been followed by the reduction of York, and of Forts George, Erie, and Malden; by the recovery of Detroit, and the extermination of the Indian war in the *w*.

The campaign of 1813 consisted of a series of defeats over the Americans, commanded by the Generals Harrison, Wilkinson, and Hampton, who had, with a simultaneous operation, attempted the invasion of the lower province. Harrison crossed over with his force, at the head of Lake Erie, to Detroit, causing General Proctor]

[to withdraw beyond York. Wilkinson crossed over, with a powerful division of the army, at the bottom of Lake Ontario to Kingston, and was completely and disgracefully beaten by Colonel Morrison, by a handful of Canadians. Hampton crossed over the St. Lawrence at Montreal, and was also severely chastised for his boldness at Chateauguay, by Colonel De Salubury, and forced back to Plattsburg. Thus, upon the close of the campaign in 1813, the theatre of the war became transferred into the American territory; where Niagara, their strongest fortress, and the important posts of Black Rock and Buffalo, were wrested from them by British valour and enterprise, under the able administration of Sir George Prevost.

The British forces, in the above conflicts, at no time exceeded 15,000 men. Of the American army we have no means of procuring a very accurate statement; but one account, inserted in the Quebec paper, November 19, 1813, gives it at upwards of 41,000 men.

In January, 1814, Messrs. Bayard and Adams were appointed to conduct the negotiations for peace, proposed between England and the United States by *the Russian Mediation*. Mr. Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives, and Mr. Jonathan Russell, were subsequently added to the commission, Mr. Russell being also appointed Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of Sweden.

Table of Post-Offices, shewing the Distance from the Post-Office at Philadelphia to every other Post-Office here mentioned.

	Miles.
Abbeville Court-house, S.C.	782
Abbotstown, P.	103
Abingdon, Va.	511
Accomac Court-house, Va.	199
Albany, N.Y.	265
Alexandria, Va.	156
Allen's Fresh, Md.	203
Amboy, N.J.	74
Amherst, N.H.	384
Andover, Ms.	372
Annapolis, Md.	132
Anson Court-house, N.C.	583
Averysborough, N.C.	482
Augusta, G.	763
Baltimore, Md.	102
Bairdstown, K.	875
Barnstable, Ms.	423
Bath, Me.	512
Bath, N.Y.	248
Bath, c.h. Va.	337
Beaufort, S.C.	836
Bedford, P.	204
Belfast, Me.	590
Bel Air, Md.	86
Benedict, Md.	191
Bennington, Vt.	302
Bermuda Hundred, Va.	302
Berwick, Me.	432
Bethania, N.C.	538
Bethlehem, P.	58
Beverly, Ms.	367
Biddeford, Me.	451
Blackhorse, Md.	101
Bladensburgh, Md.	140
Bluehill, Me.	623
Booneton, N.J.	116
Boston, Ms.	347
Bourbontown, K.	749
Bowlingreen, Va.	230
Brattleborough, Vt.	311
Brewers, Me.	745
Bridgehampton, N.Y.	196
Bridgetown east, N.J.	74
Bridgetown west, N.J.	57
Bristol, R.I.	306
Bristol, P.	20
Brookfield, Ms.	278
Brookhaven, N.Y.	161
Brownsville, P.	341
Brunswick, Me.	500
Brunswick, New, N.J.	60
Burlington, Vt.	429
Butternutts, N.Y.	375
Cabbin Point, Va.	329
Cabellsburg, Va.	352
Cambridge, S.C.	762
Camden, Me.	571
Camden, S.C.	643
Canaan, Me.	577
Canaan, C.	257
Cantwell's Bridge, D.	52
Carlisle, P.	125
Cartersville, Va.	323
Centreville, Md.	98]

	Miles.
[Centre Harbour, N.H.	486
Catskill, N.Y.	233
Castine, Me.	610
Chambersburg, P.	157
Chandler's River, Me.	697
Chapel Hill, N.C.	472
Chaptico, Md.	215
Charlestown, N.H.	341
Charlestown, Md.	59
CHARLESTON, S.C.	763
Charlotte, c.h. Va.	379
Charlotte, c.h. N.C.	617
Charlottesville, Va.	303
Chatham, c.h. N.C.	584
Chenango, N.Y.	375
Cheraw, c.h. S.C.	591
Cherry Valley, N.Y.	336
Chester, N.H.	396
Chester, P.	15
Chester, c.h. S.C.	736
Chester Town, Md.	81
Christiana, D.	37
Cincinnati, N.T.	779
Claverack, N.Y.	231
Clermont, N.Y.	212
Clowes, D.	108
Colchester, Va.	172
Columbia, Me.	688
Columbia, Va.	328
Columbia, S.C.	678
Conajohary, N.Y.	318
Concord, N.H.	420
Concord, Ms.	368
Cooperstown, N.Y.	348
Coosawatchy, S.C.	833
Culpepper, Va.	253
Cumberland, Mid.	227
Cumberland, c.h. Va.	330
Dagsborough, D.	127
Danbury, C.	171
Danville, K.	830
Dedham, Ms.	321
Dighton, Ms.	314
Dover, N.H.	426
Dover, D.	76
Downington, P.	33
Duck Creek, D.	64
Duck Trap, Me.	578
Dumfries, Va.	182
Duplin, c.h. N.C.	566
Durham, N.H.	426
Dresden, Me.	540
Douty's Falls, Me.	439
East-Greenwich, R.I.	306
Easton, P.	70
Easton, Md.	118
Edenton, N.C.	440
Edgartown, Ms.	446
Edgefield, c.h. S.C.	738
Elberton, G.	859
Elizabeth Town, N.J.	80
Elizabeth Town, N.C.	547
Elkton, Md.	49
Ephrata, P.	74
Exeter, N.H.	402
Fairfield, Me.	563
Fairfield, C.	161
Falmouth, Ms.	429
Falmouth, Va.	207
Fayetteville, N.C.	507
Fincastle, Va.	358
Fishkill, N.Y.	165
Flemington, N.J.	53
FRANKFORT, K.	790
Franklin, c.h. G.	834
Frederica, D.	88
Fredericksburg, Va.	208
Fredericktown, Md.	148
Freeport, Me.	493
Gallipolis, N.T.	559
Geneva, N.Y.	457
Georgetown, C.R. Md.	65
Georgetown, Ptk. Md.	148
Georgetown, S.C.	681
Georgetown, G.	873
Germanton, N.C.	528
Gettisburg, P.	119
Gloucester, Ms.	384
Gloucester, c.h. Va.	321
Goldson's, Va.	355
Goochland, c.h. Va.	308
Goldsborough, Me.	657
Goshen, N.Y.	146
Gray, Me.	489
Greene, Me.	514
Greenfield, Ms.	291
Greenbrier, c.h. Va.	410
Greensborough, G.	841
Greensburg, P.	272
Greensville, T.	577
Greenville, N.C.	445
Greenville, c.h. S.C.	781
Guilford, C.	201
Hacketstown, N.J.	130]

	Miles.
Hagerstown, Md.	149
Halifax, N. C.	384
Halifax, c. h. Va.	414
Hallowell, c. h. Me.	539
Hallowell Hook, Me.	542
Hamburg, N. J.	121
Hampton, Va.	371
Hancock, Md.	179
Hanover, N. H.	377
Hanover, Ms.	375
Hanover, P.	106
Hanover, c. h. Va.	255
Hanover-Town, Va.	300
Harford, Md.	77
Harpersfield, N. Y.	289
Harrisburg, P.	107
Harris's, Va.	336
Harrodsburg, K.	820
HARTFORD, C.	222
Haverhill, N. H.	412
Haverhill, Ms.	382
Havre-de-Grace, Md.	65
Hertford, N. C.	458
Hicks's Ford, Va.	356
Hillsborough, N. C.	456
Hingham, Ms.	369
Hogtown, N. C.	419
Holmes's Hole, Ms.	438
Horntown, Va.	174
Hudson, N. Y.	227
Huntington, Md.	171
Huntsville, N. C.	553
Indian-Town, N. C.	492
Ipswich, Ms.	377
Iredell, c. h. N. C.	592
Johnsonsburg, N. J.	98
Johnston, N. Y.	307
Jonesborough, T.	551
Kanandaigua, N. Y.	473
Keene, N. H.	344
Killingworth, C.	210
Kinderhook, N. Y.	244
Kingston, (Esopus) N. Y.	192
Kinsale, Va.	305
Kingston, N. C.	522
KNOXVILLE, T.	652
Lancaster, Ms.	385
Lancaster, P.	66
Lancaster, c. h. Va.	335
Lansingburg, N. Y.	274
Laurens, c. h. S. C.	755
Laytons, Va.	245
Lebanon, P.	82
Leesburg, Va.	173
Leesburg, N. C.	510
Leominster, Ms.	390
Leonard-Town, Md.	227
Lewisburg, P.	132
Lexington, Va.	322
Lexington, K.	769
Liberty, Va.	393
Lincolnton, N. C.	652
Litchfield, C.	207
Little German Flats, N. Y.	348
Londonderry, N. H.	403
Louisburg, N. C.	415
Louisville, K.	913
LOUISVILLE, G.	825
Lumberton, N. C.	539
Lower Marlboro', Md.	162
Lynchburgh, Va.	381
Lynn, Ms.	361
Machias, Me.	705
Manchester, Vt.	324
Marblehead, Ms.	372
MARIETTA, N. T.	456
Martinsburg, Va.	168
Marlborough, N. H.	350
Martinsville, Va.	478
Martinville, N. C.	504
Mecklenburg, Va.	395
Mendon, Ms.	295
Middlebury, Vt.	392
Middletown, C.	208
Middletown, D.	49
Middletown Point	93
Milford, C.	173
Milford, D.	95
Millerstown, P.	34
Monmouth, Me.	524
Monmouth, c. h. N. J.	64
Montgomery, c. h. Md.	158
Montgomery, c. h. Va.	408
Montgomery, c. h. N. C.	607
Moore, c. h. N. C.	547
Moorefields, Va.	267
Morgantown, Va.	203
Morganton, N. C.	661
Morristown, N. J.	108
Morrisville, P.	29
Mount Tizrah, N. C.	480
Murfreesborough, N. C.	422]

	Miles.
[Nantucket, Ms.	382
Narraguagus, Me.	673
Nash, c. h. N. C.	443
Nashville, T.	1015
Newark, N. J.	86
New-Bedford, Ms.	322
Newburn, N. C.	501
Newburg, N. Y.	170
Newbury, Vt.	417
New-Brunswick, N. J.	60
Newbury, c. h. S. C.	723
Newbury-Port, Ms.	389
Newcastle, Me.	535
Newcastle, D.	33
New-Germantown, N. J.	73
New-Gloucester, Me.	499
New-Hartford. C.	242
NEW-HAVEN, C.	183
New Kent, c. h. Va.	308
New-Lebanon, N. Y.	293
New-London, C.	237
New-London, Va.	393
New-market, Va.	242
New-Milford, C.	187
New-Milford, Me.	538
Newport, R. I.	292
Newport, D.	31
Newport-Bridge, G.	959
Newtown, N. Y.	250
NEW-YORK city, N. Y.	95
Nixonton, N. C.	468
Norfolk, Va.	389
Northampton, Ms.	270
Northampton, c. h. Va.	239
Norridgeworth, Me.	587
Northumberland, P.	124
Northumberland, c. h. Va.	317
North-Yarmouth, Me.	483
Norwalk, C.	149
Norwich, C.	251
Nottingham, N. H.	437
Nottingham, Md.	265
Old-Fort Schuyler, N. Y.	364
Old-Town, Md.	213
Onondaigua, N. Y.	422
Orangeburg, S. C.	721
Orange, c. h. Va.	273
Orford, N. H.	395
Ouliout, N. Y.	325
Owega, N. Y.	284
Oxford Ac. N. Y.	395
Painted Post, N. Y.	230
Passamaquoddy, Me.	728
Peekskill, N. Y.	145
Pendleton, c. h. S. C.	801
Penobscot, or Castine, Me.	606
Peterborough, N. H.	366
Petersburg, P.	113
Petersburg, Va.	303
Petersburg, G.	836
PHILADELPHIA, P.	——
Pinkneyville, S. C.	716
Piscataway, Md.	178
Pittsburg, P.	303
Pittsfield, Ms.	299
Pittsylvania, c. h. Va.	448
Pittston, Me.	547
Pittston, N. J.	58
Plumstead, P.	36
Plymouth, N. H.	445
Plymouth, Ms.	393
Plymouth, N. C.	463
Pomfret, C.	264
PORTLAND, Me.	469
Port-Royal, Va.	230
PORTSMOUTH, N. H.	411
Portsmouth, Va.	390
Port-Tobacco, Md.	194
Pottsgrove, P.	37
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	180
Powhatan, c. h. Va.	310
Prince-Edward, c. h. Va.	358
Princess-Ann, Md.	178
Princeton, N. J.	42
Princeton, N. C.	419
Prospect, Me.	602
PROVIDENCE, R. I.	291
Queen-Ann's, Md.	141
Quincy, Ms.	360
RALEIGH, N. C.	448
Randolph, c. h. N. C.	585
Reading, P.	54
Redhook, N. Y.	206
Rhinebeck, N. Y.	198
Richland, N. C.	551
RICHMOND, Va.	278
Richmond, c. h. Va.	273
Richmond, c. h. N. C.	563
Ridgefield, C.	161
Rockaway, N. J.	123
Rockford, N. C.	573
Rockingham, c. h. Va.	262
Rockingham, c. h. N. C.	536
Rocky-Mount, Va.	433]

	Miles.
Rome, N. Y.	376
Rutland, Vt.	359
Romney, Va.	242
Sagg-Harbour, N. Y.	202
St. Leonard's, Md.	186
St. Mary's, G.	1054
St. Tammany's, Va.	389
Salem, Ms.	365
Salem, N. J.	37
Salem, N. C.	531
Salisbury, Md.	163
Salisbury, N. C.	567
Sampson, c. h. N. C.	543
Sandwich, Ms.	411
Sanford, Me.	447
Savannah, G.	925
Sawyer's Ferry, N. C.	482
Saybrook, C.	219
Scotland Neck, N. C.	396
Schenectady, N. Y.	281
Scipio, N. Y.	461
Sharpsburgh, Md.	181
Sheffield, Ms.	257
Shepherdstown, Va.	178
Shippensburg, P.	146
Shrewsbury, N. J.	79
Smithfield, Va.	364
Smithfield, N. C.	473
Smithtown, N. Y.	147
Snowhill, Md.	158
Somerset, Ms.	311
Southampton, c. h. Va.	399
Sparta, N. J.	117
Spartan, c. h. S. C.	746
Springfield, Ms.	250
Springfield, K.	729
Stamford, C.	139
Statesburg, S. C.	663
Staunton, Va.	287
Stevensburg, Va.	200
Stockbridge, Ms.	249
Stonington, C.	251
Strasburg, Va.	210
Stratford, C.	169
Suffield, C.	232
Suffolk, Va.	386
Sullivan, Me.	645
Sumner, S. C.	
Sussex, c. h. N. J.	108
Sunbury, P.	122
Sunbury, G.	974
Sweedsborough, N. J.	20
Sweet Springs, Va.	380
Taneyton, Md.	121
Tappahannock, V.	263
Tarborough, N. C.	420
Taunton, Ms.	312
Thomaston, Me.	564
Todds, Va.	283
Tower Hill, R. I.	282
Trenton, Me.	633
Trenton, N. J.	30
Trenton, N. C.	521
Troy, N. Y.	271
Union Town, P.	327
Union, N. Y.	340
Upper Marlborough, Md.	162
Urbanna, Va.	291
Vassalborough, Me.	551
Vergennes, Vt.	407
Vienna, Md.	150
Waldoborough, Me.	545
Wallingford, C.	195
Walpole, N. H.	330
Wardsbridge, N. Y.	156
Warminster, Va.	332
Warren, Me.	557
Warren, R. I.	302
Warren, Va.	326
Warrenton, N. C.	390
Warwick, Md.	57
WASHINGTON city	144
Washington, P.	325
Washington, K.	709
Washington, N. C.	460
Washington, G.	813
Waterbury, Me.	456
Waynesborough, N. C.	498
Waynesborough, G.	800
Wells, Me.	441
Westerley, R. I.	256
Westfield, Ms.	260
West Liberty, Va.	348
Westminster, Vt.	329
Westmoreland, c. h. Va.	289
Weathersfield, C.	218
Wheeling, Va.	363
Whitestown, N. Y.	368
Wilkes, N. C.	611
Wilkesbarre, P.	118
Williamsborough, N. C.	407
Williamsburgh, N. Y.	288
Williamsburg, Va.	338
Williamsport, Md.	155]

	Miles.
[Williamston, N. C.	444
Wilmington, D.	28
Wilmington, N. C.	600
Winchendon, Ms.	370
Winchester, Va.	192
Windham, C.	253
Windsor, Vt.	255
Windsor, N. C.	481
Winnsborough, S. C.	708
Winslow, Me.	559
Winthorp, Me.	529
Winton, N. C.	434
Wiscasset, Me.	525
Woodbridge, N. J.	70
Woodbury, N. J.	9
Woodstock, Va.	222
Woodstown, N. J.	26
Worcester, Ms.	299
Worthington, Ms.	289
Wythe, c. h. Va.	454
Yarmouth, Ms.	427
Yonkers, N. Y.	114
York, Me.	421
York Town, Va.	350
York, P.	88

Explanation.

Me. for	Maine.
N. H.	New Hampshire.
Vt.	Vermont.
Ms.	Massachusetts.
R. I.	Rhode Island.
C.	Connecticut.
N. Y.	New York.
N. J.	New Jersey.
P.	Pennsylvania.
N. T.	North-Western Territory.
D.	Delaware.
Md.	Maryland.
Va.	Virginia.
K.	Kentuky.
N. C.	North Carolina.
T.	Tennessee.
S. C.	South Carolina.
G.	Georgia.
Ptk.	Potowmack.
C. R.	Cross Roads.
c. h.	Court House.

Post Office Regulations.

RATES OF POSTAGE FOR SINGLE LETTERS.

	Miles.	Cts.
Any distance not exceeding	30	6
Over 30, and not exceeding	60	8
Over 60, and not exceeding	100	10
Over 100 ditto	150	12½
Over 150 ditto	200	15
Over 200 ditto	250	17
Over 250 ditto	350	20
Over 350 ditto	450	22
Over 450		25

SHIP LETTERS

Received by private ships, are rated at 4 cents each, and if they are forwarded by post, with the addition of the ordinary rates of land postage.

Ship letters passing in packet-boats or vessels provided by the United States, are rated as follow:

	Cts.
Single letters, at	8
Double, at	16
Triple, or packets, at	24

RATES OF POSTAGE OF NEWS-PAPERS.

	Cts.
Each paper carried not over 100 miles	1
Over 100 miles	1½
But if carried to any post-office in the State in which it is printed, whatever be the distance, the rate is	1

MAGAZINES AND PAMPHLETS ARE RATED BY THE SHEET.

	Cts.
Carried not over 50 miles, per sheet	1
Over 50, and not over 100 - ditto	1½
Any greater distance	2

OBSERVATIONS.

When postages are charged too high, such as a single letter charged as double, an abatement of the postage will be made, if the letter or packet is opened in the presence of the post-master, or his letter-carrier, but not otherwise.

Letters must be delivered at the offices of Boston, N. York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, one hour before the time fixed for the departure of the mail, and at other offices half an hour, or they will lie until the next post.

Letter carriers are employed at large post-towns, who deliver letters at the residence of individuals; they are entitled to two cents for each letter or packet which they deliver, in addition to the postage. Any person may, however, receive his letters at the post-office, on giving the postmaster a written direction to that purpose.

Postages of letters or packets may be paid in advance at the office where the letter is entered]

[to be conveyed by post, or they may be sent unpaid at the writer's choice. Postages must always be paid before delivering of the letter.

Postmasters are required to be very cautious in delivering letters, there being in some towns several persons of the same name; the directions should be particular in such cases.

The direction should always mention the State, and generally the county in which the place is situated; for there are places of the same name in several of the States, and in some States places of the same name in different counties. As in Pennsylvania there are three places called Hanover; one in York County, where a post-office is kept; one in Dauphin, and the other in Luzerne County.

When a letter is destined to a place where no post office is kept, the nearest post-office should be mentioned. If the place is not on a post road, and it is wished that the postmaster should forward the letter by private conveyance, that wish should be expressed on the letter, and the postage should be paid at the office where the letter is entered.

When letters are destined for Canada, or Nova Scotia, between which and the United States there is a regular communication by post, the postage must be paid in advance at the office where the letter is entered, so far as Burlington; Vermont in one instance, and Brewers Maine in the other instance.

When letters are sent by post to be conveyed beyond sea, the postage must be paid as far as the post-office where the letters are intended to be shipped. The postmaster there will forward such letters by the first conveyance.

The post-office does not insure money or other things sent by post; it is always conveyed at the risk of the person who sends, or requires it to be sent.

No stage owner, or driver, or common carrier, may carry letters on a post road, excepting only such letters as may be for the owner of such conveyance, and relating to the same, or to the person to whom any package or bundle in such conveyance is addressed.

When letters are delivered by a post-rider, he is entitled to two cents for each letter, in addition to the postage.

FREE LETTERS.

The following persons have a right to frank their own letters, and receive those directed to them free of postage: the President and Vice President of the United States, Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary at War, Postmaster General, Comptroller, Register and Auditor of the Treasury of the United States, Commissioner of the Revenue, Purveyor Accomptant of the War Office, and Assistant Postmaster General; the Members of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, and the Secretary of the Senate and Clerk of the House of Representatives, during their actual attendance on Congress, and 20 days after the close of the session, when their letters do not exceed two ounces in weight, and the deputy postmasters when their letters do not exceed half an ounce in weight. No person may frank other letters than his own. If letters are inclosed to either of the description of officers above named for a person who has not the privilege of franking, he must return the letter to the post-office, marking upon the letter the place from whence it came, that the postmaster may charge postage thereon.

The distances in the table are taken chiefly from the information of Congress, and of postmasters living on the routes, and it is presumed that they are pretty generally accurate.

ABRAHAM BRADLEY, Junior,
Clerk in the General Post Office,
Philadelphia.

Nov. 2, 1796.

Note.—The distances are calculated by the post route on which the mails are usually carried. Some alterations have probably taken place as well in the number of the post-offices, as in the regulations, since the year 1796; but not such as materially to depreciate the value of this information.

Tables of Coins, Exchange, &c.

The currencies of the British colonies in N. America have fluctuated and varied so much that they have differed greatly both as to time and place, seldom being the same in two different provinces at a time, and often changing value in the same place. In some of the provinces so great has been the depreciation, that 2*s.* sterling hath become equal to £1 nominal currency, or £1 sterling, equal to £10. At Boston, in N. England, the exchange ran on in a continual course of depreciation in the space of 47 years, in an irregular, progressive advance, from £133 currency for £100 sterling, to £1,100 currency for £100 sterling. A state of all the degrees of depreciation in the respective years, the variations or changes happened, from the year 1702 to the year 1749, together with the value]

[of silver, both by the ounce and dollar, corresponding with the said depreciation, are set down in the following table.

Years.	Exchange.	Oz. of Silver currency.		Dollar sterling.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.
1702	133	6	10½	4	6
1705	135	7	0	4	6¼
1713	150	8	0	4	7½
1716	175	9	3	4	7
1717	225	12	0	4	7½
1722	270	14	0	4	6½
1728	340	18	0	4	7
1730	380	20	0	4	7½
1737	500	26	0	4	6
1741	550	28	0	4	5
1749	1,100	60	0	4	8½

Their money having thus run on to £1,100 currency for £100 sterling, or 11 for 1, a stop was put to the further depreciation of the money of the province of Massachusetts Bay, in the year 1750, by a remittance in money sent over from England, to the amount of £183,000 sterling, to reimburse the expense that province had been at in the reduction of Cape Breton, in the French war. The money was mostly composed of Spanish dollars. The depreciated paper money, or province bills, were called in and paid off, at the rate of 45*s.* currency for each dollar, and the bills burnt, destroyed, and a law made by which the par of exchange was fixed at £133⅓ currency for £100 sterling, and the dollar at 6*s.* the same currency; but, before the lapse of three years, the exchanges had become as unfavourable as ever.

The currency of Rhode Island had run on in a depreciation from the year 1744 to the year 1759, from £450 to £2,300 currency for £100 sterling.

The currencies of several of the Provinces have at times gone backwards and forwards in varying their exchanges with England. The pars of exchange, with the several provinces, began to be more settled about the year 1761, and were as follows:

Boston, in N. England	133 ⅓
N. York and E. Jersey	175 or 171 ⅝
Pennsylvania and W. Jersey	165 or 160 ⅔
Virginia	125
Maryland	145
N. Carolina	145
S. Carolina	700
Georgia	100
Jamaica	140
Barbadoes	135
Nevis and Montserrat	175
Antigua and St. Christopher	165

In Quebec, Montreal, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Annapolis, and the Bay of Fundy, the currencies might be fixed at 108, 109, or 110, when the dollar was made to pass for 5*s.* the pistole for 18*s.* the English guinea for 22*s.* 6*d.*, the johannes or 36*s.* piece for 38*s.* 6*d.*, and the moidore for 29*s.* in their respective place.

The course of exchange at N. York has varied within the present year, 1814, from 4 to 7½ per cent. discount.

FEDERAL MONEY.

	s.	d.
In New England and Virginia, a dollar is	6	0
New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland	7	6
S. Carolina and Georgia	4	8
New York and N. Carolina	8	0

TABLE OF THE VALUE OF DOLLARS IN STERLING, RECKONING THE DOLLAR AT 4*s.* 6*d.* ENGLISH MONEY.

Dol.	£.	s.	*Dol.*	£.	s.	d.
100,000 =	22,500	0	200 =	45	0	0
50,000	11,250	0	100	22	0	10
20,000	4,500	0	50	11	5	0
10,000	2,250	0	40	9	0	0
5,000	1,125	0	30	6	15	0
4,000	900	0	20	4	10	0
3,000	675	0	10	2	5	0
2,000	450	0	9	2	0	6
1,000	225	0	8	1	16	0
900	202	10	7	1	11	6
800	180	0	6	1	7	0
700	157	10	5	1	2	6
600	135	0	4	0	18	0
500	112	10	3	0	13	6
400	90	0	2	0	9	0
300	67	10	1	0	4	6]

[TABLE OF THE VALUE OF CENTS IN STERLING MONEY.

	s.	d.	far.
1 Cent. is equal to	0	0	2,16
2	0	1	0,32
3	0	1	2,48
4	0	2	0,64
5	0	2	2,8
6	0	3	0,96
7	0	3	3,12
8	0	4	1,28
9	0	4	3,44
10	0	5	1,60
11	0	5	3,76
12	0	6	1,92
13	0	7	0,08
14	0	7	2,24
15	0	8	0,40
16	0	8	2,56
17	0	9	0,72
18	0	9	2,88
19	0	10	1,04
20	0	10	3,20
21	0	11	1,36
22	0	11	3,52
23	1	0	1,68
24	1	0	3,84
25	1	1	2,
26	1	2	0,16
27	1	2	2,32
28	1	3	0,48
29	1	3	2,64
30	1	4	0,8
31	1	4	2,96
32	1	5	1,12
33	1	5	3,28
34	1	6	1,44
35	1	6	3,6
36	1	7	1,76
37	1	7	3,92
38	1	8	2,08
39	1	9	0,24
40	1	9	2,40
41	1	10	0,56
42	1	10	2,72
43	1	11	0,88
44	1	11	3,04
45	2	0	1,20
46	2	0	3,36
47	2	1	1,52
48	2	1	3,68
49	2	2	1,84
50	2	3	0,
51	2	3	2,16
52	2	4	0,32
53	2	4	2,48
54	2	5	0,64
55	2	5	2,80
56	2	6	0,96
57	2	6	3,12
58	2	7	1,28
59	2	7	3,44
60	2	8	1,60
61	2	8	3,76
62	2	9	1,92
63	2	10	0,08
64	2	10	2,24
65	2	11	0,40
66	2	11	2,56
67	3	0	0,72
68	3	0	2,88
69	3	1	1,04
70	3	1	3,20
71	3	2	1,36
72	3	2	3,52
73	3	3	1,68
74	3	3	3,84
75	3	4	2,
76	3	5	0,16
77	3	5	2,32
78	3	6	0,48
79	3	6	2,64
80	3	7	0,80
81	3	7	2,96
82	3	8	1,12
83	3	8	3,28
84	3	9	1,44
85	3	9	3,60
86	3	10	1,76
87	3	10	3,92
88	3	11	2,08
89	4	0	0,24
90	4	0	2,40
91	4	1	0,56
92	4	1	2,72
93	4	2	0,88
94	4	2	3,04
95	4	3	1,20
96	4	3	3,36
97	4	4	1,52
98	4	4	3,68
99	4	5	1,84
100	4	6]	

[TABLE OF THE VALUE OF CENTS IN PENCE *, AS COMPUTED AT THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES AND NORTH AMERICA.

Pence.	Cents.	Pence.	Cents.	Pence.	Cents.	Pence.	Cents.
1 -	1	24 -	27	47 -	52	70 -	78
2 -	2	25 -	28	48 -	53	71 -	79
3 -	3	26 -	29	49 -	54	72 -	80
4 -	4	27 -	30	50 -	55	73 -	81
5 -	5	28 -	31	51 -	57	74 -	82
6 -	7	29 -	32	52 -	58	75 -	83
7 -	8	30 -	33	53 -	59	76 -	84
8 -	9	31 -	34	54 -	60	77 -	85
9 -	10	32 -	35	55 -	61	78 -	87
10 -	11	33 -	37	56 -	62	79 -	88
11 -	12	34 -	38	57 -	63	80 -	89
12 -	13	35 -	39	58 -	64	81 -	90
13 -	14	36 -	40	59 -	65	82 -	91
14 -	15	37 -	41	60 -	67	83 -	92
15 -	17	38 -	42	61 -	68	84 -	93
16 -	18	39 -	43	62 -	69	85 -	94
17 -	19	40 -	44	63 -	70	86 -	95
18 -	20	41 -	45	64 -	71	87 -	97
19 -	21	42 -	47	65 -	72	88 -	98
20 -	22	43 -	48	66 -	73	89 -	99
21 -	23	44 -	49	67 -	74	90 -	100
22 -	24	45 -	50	68 -	75		
23 -	25	46 -	51	69 -	77		

1-16 of a dollar, $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents.
1-8 do. $12\frac{1}{2}$ do.
1-4 do. 25 do.
1-2 do. 50 do.
1-2 a pistareen, 10 do.
1 pistareen, 20 do.

* That is pence in currency, wherein one penny currency is equal to $\frac{3}{5}$ of a penny sterling.

TABLE OF THE VALUE OF THE GOLD COINS OF THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES, AS ESTABLISHED BY ACT OF CONGRESS, PASSED FEBRUARY 9, 1793, VIZ.

Great Britain and Portugal.					France, Spain, and the Dominions of Spain.				
Gr.	Cts.	Dwt.	Dol.	Cts.	Gr.	Cts.	Dwt.	Dol.	Cts.
1	3	1	0	89	1	3	1	0	87
2	7	2	1	78	2	7	2	1	75
3	11	3	2	67	3	11	3	2	63
4	14	4	3	55	4	14	4	3	50
5	18	5	4	44	5	18	5	4	38
6	22	6	5	33	6	22	6	5	25
7	25	7	6	22	7	25	7	6	13
8	29	8	7	11	8	29	8	7	1
9	33	9	8	00	9	33	9	7	88
10	37	10	8	89	10	36	10	8	76
11	40	11	9	78	11	40	11	9	63
12	44	12	10	67	12	44	12	10	51
13	48	13	11	55	13	47	13	11	39
14	51	14	12	44	14	51	14	12	26
15	55	15	13	33	15	55	15	13	14
16	59	16	14	22	16	58	16	14	1
17	63	17	15	11	17	62	17	14	89
18	67	18	16	00	18	66	18	15	76
19	70	19	16	89	19	69	19	16	64
20	74	20	17	78	20	73	20	17	52
21	78	21	18	67	21	76	21	18	39
22	81	22	19	55	22	80	22	19	27
23	85	23	20	44	23	84	23	20	14
24	89	24	21	33	24	87	24	21	2]

[TABLE OF THE WEIGHT AND VALUE OF SUNDRY COINS, AS THEY PASS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA *.

Names of Coins.	Standard Weight.		Sterling Money of Great Britain.			Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland.			New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Con. Virginia.			New York & N. Carolina.			S. Carolina & Georgia.		
	dw.	gr.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
English Guineas	5	6	1	1	0	1	15	0	1	8	0	1	17	4	1	1	9
French ditto	5	4	1	1	0	1	14	6	1	7	6	1	16	0	1	1	5
English Crowns	19	0	0	5	0	0	8	4	0	6	8	0	9	0	0	5	0
French ditto	19	0	0	5	0	0	8	4	0	6	8	0	9	0	0	5	0
English Sixpence	1	21	0	0	6	0	0	10	0	0	8	0	0	$10\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	6
Spanish Dollars	17	6	0	4	6	0	7	6	0	6	0	0	8	0	0	4	8
Johannes	18	0	3	12	0	6	0	0	4	16	0	6	8	0	4	0	0
Half-Johannes	9	0	1	16	0	3	0	0	2	8	0	3	4	0	2	0	0
French Pistoles	4	4	0	16	0	1	7	6	1	2	0	1	8	0	0	17	6
Spanish ditto	4	6	0	16	6	1	8	0	1	2	0	1	9	0	0	18	0
Doubloons	16	21	3	6	0	5	12	6	4	8	0	5	16	0	3	10	0
Moidores	6	18	1	7	0	2	5	0	1	16	0	2	8	0	1	8	0

* It will be useful to remember, 1st. that Pennsylvania currency is reduced to sterling, by multiplying by 3 and dividing by 5. £.100 sterling, making at par £.$166\frac{2}{3}$ Pennsylvania currency. That is, a merchant, when exchange is at par, will give a draft on Pennsylvania for £.$166\frac{2}{3}$ on receiving £.100 sterling.

2. That New York currency is reduced to sterling, by multiplying by 9 and dividing by 16. A shilling, New York currency, is $6\frac{3}{4}$ sterling.

3. That New England and Virginia currency is reduced to sterling, by multiplying by 3 and dividing by 4.

4. That S. Carolina and Georgia currency is reduced to sterling, by deducting $\frac{1}{27}$.]

UNDERHILL, a township of Vermont, Chittendon County, 12 miles *e.* of Colchester, and contains 65 inhabitants.

[UNION, a county of S. Carolina, Pinckney district, containing, in 1790, 7,693 inhabitants, of whom 6,430 were whites, and 1,215 slaves. It sends two representatives and one senator to the State legislature. Chief town Pinckneyville.]

[UNION, a rocky township in Tolland County, Connecticut, *w.* of Woodstock, and about 10 miles *n. e.* of Tolland.]

[UNION, a township of the district of Maine, Lincoln County, containing, in 1790, 200 inhabitants. In was incorporated in 1786.]

[UNION, a post town of the State of N. York, Tioga County, on the *n.* side of Suspuehannah river, and *w.* of the mouth of the Chenango, 90 miles *s. e.* by *e.* of Williamsburg, on Genesse river, 22 *e. n. e.* of Athens, or Tioga Point, 56 *s. w.* of Cooperstown. In 1796, there were in the township 284 of the inhabitants qualified electors.]

[UNION River, or Plantation, No. 6, in the district of Maine, is situated in Hancock County, 25 miles *n. e.* of Penobscot.]

[UNION River, in the county of Hancock, district of Maine, empties into Blue Hill Bay, on the *e.* side of Penobscot Bay. Long Island, in this Bay, is in lat. 44° 25′ and long. 68° 16′.]

[UNION Town, a post town of Pennsylvania, Fayette County, on Redstone Creek. It contains a church, a stone gaol, and a brick court-house, and about 80 dwelling houses. Near it are two valuable merchant mills. It is the seat of the county courts, and is 14 miles *s.* by *e.* of Brownsville, where Redstone Creek enters the Monongahela, 37 miles *s.* of Pittsburg, 18 *n. e.* of Morgantown in Virginia, and 212 *w.* of Philadelphia.]

[UNITAS, a village of N. Carolina, situated at the head of Gargal's Creek.]

UNITIMONI, a river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia, which rises at the beginning of the *sierras* of Parime; and, forming a curve to the *w.* enters the Maguiritaris.

[UNITY, a settlement in Lincoln County, district of Maine, between the West Ponds, seven or eight miles *w.* of Sidney, opposite to Vassalborough, and 15 miles *n. w.* of Hallowell. It lies on Sandy River, about 16 miles from its mouth.]

[UNITY, a township of New Hampshire, situated in Cheshire County, a few miles *n. e.* of Charleston. It was incorporated in 1764, and contained, in 1796, 538 inhabitants.]

[UNITY Town, in Montgomery County, Maryland, lies two or three miles from Patuxent River, 11 from Montgomery court-house, and 24 *n.* of the city of Washington.]

UNUCUMURI, a small river in the province and county of Las Amazonas, and in the Portuguese territory, which runs *e.* between the rivers Negro and Marañon, and enters the lake Unamaquema.

UPA, a river of the province and government of Antioquia, in the new kingdom of Granada, which runs *n.*, and turning immediately to the *w.* enters the grand river Magdalena.

UPAMENA, a settlement of the jurisdiction of Santiago de las Atalayas, and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Granada. It is very reduced and poor, of a hot temperature, producing maize, *yucas*, plantains, and some *cacao*: it is close to the capital.

A river of the province and *captainship* of Scara in Brazil, which runs *n.* and turning to *n. n. e.* enters the sea between Cape Corso and the river Hanaigara.

UPANO, a river of the province and government of Quixos and Macas, in the kingdom of Quito, formed by the rivers Zuña, Vulcano, and Abanico. It laves to the city of Macas; and being afterwards united with others, forms the Morma.

UPAR, or UPARI, a long and beautiful valley of the province and government of Santa Marta, in the new kingdom of Granada. It was discovered by Gonzalo Ximines de Puesada in 1555: it is traversed from *n.* to *s.* and fertilized by the river Cesar; is of a hot temperature, and produces much sugar cane, and all kinds of productions, as well European as American: it is tolerably well peopled, and in the mountains of its vicinity are some mines of silver, copper, iron, and lead: it is more than 40 miles long from *n.* to *s.*, and more than 30 wide from *e.* to *w.*

UPATA, a town of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia; situate on the skirt of a mountain.

UPATA, a valley of the same province, on the side of the river Paragua, near the mouth by which it enters the Orinoco.

[UPATCHAWANAN, or TEMISCAMAIN, a Canadian settlement in N. America, in lat. 47° 17′ 30″ *n.*]

UPIA, a river of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Granada, which rises in the mountains between the city of Tunja and that of Santiago de las Atalayas, and enters the Meta.

UPIENI, a river of the province and *captainship* of Scara in Brazil, which rises from a lake, and enters the sea between the river Acuma and the Point of Arecifes.

[UPPER ALLOWAYS CREEK, in Salem County, New Jersey.]

[UPPER BALD EAGLE, a township of Pennsylvania, in Mifflin County.]

[UPPER DISTRICT, a division of Georgia, which contains the counties of Montgomery, Washington, Hancock, Green, Franklin, Oglethorp, Elbert, Wilkes, Warren, Columbia, and Richmond.]

[UPPER DUBLIN, a township of Pennsylvania, in Montgomery County.]

[UPPER FREEHOLD, a township of New Jersey, Monmouth County, adjoining to Burlington and Middlesex Counties on the *n.* and *s. w.* and Freehold on the *e.* It contained in 1790, 3442 inhabitants.]

[UPPER GREAT MONADNOCK, in the township of Lemington, in the *n. e.* corner of Vermont, on Connecticut River.]

[UPPER HANOVER, a township of Pennsylvania, Montgomery County.]

[UPPER MARLBOROUGH, a post-town of Maryland, 14 miles *s. e.* of Bladensburg, and 15 *n. e.* of Piscataway.]

[UPPER MILFORD, a township of Pennsylvania, Northampton County.]

[UPPER PENN'S NECK, a township of New Jersey, Salem County.]

[UPPER SAURA, a place in N. Carolina, on Dan River, about 130 miles *w.* from Halifax.]

[UPPER SAVAGE ISLANDS, in Hudson's Bay. Lat. 62° 32′ 30″ *n.* Long. 70° 48′ *w.*]

UPRIGHT, a cape on the *s.* coast of the Strait of Magellan, at the *s.* entrance of the third

narrow channel, called Del Pasage, (of the Passage.)

[UPTON, a township of Massachusetts, Worcester County; containing, in 1790, 900 inhabitants, dispersed on 13,000 acres of land, favourable for orcharding, pasturage, and grass. It is *w.* of Sherburne, in Middlesex County, 15 miles *s. e.* of Worcester, and 38 *s. w.* of Boston.]

UQUAIGUARA, a river of the same province and kingdom as the former, which enters the sea between the Upanema and the Point of Val.

UQUETA, a lake of the province and government of Cumaná, formed by the waste waters of the Orinoco, in the part where the arms of this river are divided into various channels to enter the sea.

UQUIREI, San Juan de la Laguna de, a settlement of the province and government of Venezuela, in the new kingdom of Granada.

UQUITOA, San Antonio de, a settlement of the province and government of Sonora in Nueva España; situate near a river, between the settlements of Addi and San Luis de Bacapa.

URABA, a province of the new kingdom of Granada, to the *w.* of that of Cartagena, and bounded by that of Darien. It extends along the coast of the N. Sea, and was discovered by Pedro de Heredia, in 1534. Its capital was San Sebastian de Bellavista, a city which is at the present day destroyed. It comprehends the province of Calidonia where the Scotch established themselves; is of a hot temperature, and of a moist soil, and covered with woods, being irrigated by the river Atrato or San Juan. The English of Jamaica come hither to trade with the Indians, and to carry back gold, of which there is an abundance. Its natives are very warlike, and use swords and fire arms, and have made the Spaniards afraid of them whenever these have attempted to invade their province. This they have endeavoured to do frequently, but without effect. These Indians are allies of the Dariens and of the English.

Uraba, a great gulph of the same province, called also of Darien, formed by the cape San Sebastian to the *e.* and that of Tiburon to the *w.* discovered by Rodrigo Bastidas in 1502. Its extent is 26 leagues from *s.* to *n.* and its width nine from *e.* to *w.* Its coast is full of sharp and inaccessible shoals, and only towards the *w.* and *s.* are there any places fit for disembarking. Several rivers empty themselves into this gulph, but the largest is the Atrato or San Juan. Close to the *w.* coast are many islands, one behind another, forming so many channels. It was formerly much frequented by the French, but in 1764 it was abandoned by them, leaving to the English a free commerce with the natives. The city of San Sebastian de Bella-vista, of which nothing but the name remains, was situate on its shore. Its best port is that called Nilcos.

Uraba, an island of the S. Sea, in the bay or gulph of Panamá, of the kingdom of Tierra Firme. It is small, and close to that of Taboga, towards the *e.*

URABAES, a barbarous nation of Indians, descended from those of Darien, who dwell in the woods and forests of the province of Urabá. They are very warlike and dextrous in the use of swords and fire arms, which were given them by the English and French in exchange for gold. They are allies of the Dariens and implacable enemies to the Spaniards.

URACAPU, a river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia, one of those that enter the Orinoco by the *e.* side.

URACAYU, a settlement of the same province as the former river, in the country of the Quiriripas Indians.

[URACHO, a river on the *e.* coast of S. America, is 18 leagues *w. n. w.* of Caurora River.]

[URAGUAY. See Uruguay.]

URAMARCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Andahuailas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chincheros.

URAMEU, a settlement of the province and government of Guayana, in the part possessed by the Portuguese.

URANA, a settlement of the province and government of Guayana, one of the missions that were held by the Jesuits in the province of Santa Fé; situate on the shore of the Orinoco.

[URANO, a river on the *n.* coast of S. America, which enters the ocean abreast of the westernmost of the Peritas Islands, about three leagues *w.* of Comana Bay. It only admits small boats and canoes. Otchier Bay is to the *w.* of it.]

URAPICHU, Santa Maria de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Arautzán, and *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It contains 30 families of Indians, employed in the cultivation of seeds, cutting wood, and fabricating earthenware and saddle-trees.

URARCHAES, a barbarous nation of Indians, but little known, dwelling in the woods near the river Cayari, to the *s.* of the Marañon.

URARINES, San Francisco Xavier de los, a settlement of the missions that were held

by the Jesuits, in the province and government of Mainas, in the kingdom of Quito; situate on the shore of the Napo.

URAVE, a river of the province and government of Honduras, which rises near the coast, runs *n.* and enters the sea between Cape Camaron and the Bay of Cartago.

[URBANNA, a small post-town of Virginia, Middlesex County, on the *s. w.* side of Rappahannock River, 17 miles from Stingray Point, at the mouth of the river, 60 *s. e.* of Fredericksburg, 53 *e.* by *n.* of Richmond, and 25 from Tappahannock. Wheat is shipped from this to Europe, and Indian corn, &c. to New England, Nova Scotia, and the W. Indies.]

URBANO, a city of Middlesex County, in the province of Jersey, one of the United States of N. America, lying *s. w.* of the river Rappahanock.

URCO, San Juan de, a mountain of the kingdom of Quito, in the *corregimiento* of the district of Las Cinco Leguas de la Capital.

URCOS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Quispicanchi in Peru, near which is found the lake into which the Indians are said to have thrown the great chain of gold made on the birth of Huascar, in the search of which much pains have been lost. It is thought that this lake is formed artificially, having conducts whereby to fill and empty under the earth, as it has always remained since the time of the conquest at one height. It is 500 yards long, and 300 wide. Its depth in the centre is 56 yards; it is situate in a plain or valley of the same name, wherein are to be seen the ruins of the great palace, in which the Inca, Yahuar Huacac, retired when despoiled by his son of the throne.

URCUSA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Lucanas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Otoca.

URCUQUI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Otavalo, in the kingdom of Quito. In its district is a large estate, called Conaqui.

URECHO, San Antonio de, a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It is of a hot temperature, and one of those that suffered most severely in the epidemic which raged at Matlazahua, whereby its population became reduced to the following estates: Parota, in which they make sugar, and which is one league in length, contains four families of Spaniards and 17 of Mulattoes; Sanja contains nine; Xongo, which is so near its capital as to be divided only by a river which irrigates it, 17; San Juan, at a league's distance, 20; and that of San Pedro Tiripitio, with a small mill or engine close by it, 14; besides a few others, some leagues from the capital, Pasquaro.

URES, a settlement of the province and government of Sonora in Nueva España; situate on the shore of the river Sonora, between the settlements of San Xavier and Babiacora.

[URFE, a river of Upper Canada, afterwards called Grand River, now The Ouse, which runs into Lake Erie.]

URIDIALES, a small settlement or ward of the district and jurisdiction of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán.

URIPA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Andahuailas in Peru; 14 leagues from its capital.

URIQUE, a settlement and *real* of silver mines, in the province and government of Cinaloa.

URIREO, a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of De Zelaya in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It contains a convent of religious of S. Augustin, 907 families of Indians, and some of Spaniards and *Mustees*.

URITUQUASI, a settlement of the province and government of Popayán in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, in the road which leads down from Santa Fé.

URITUSINGA, a mountain of the province and *corregimiento* of Loxa in the kingdom of Quito, and in the territory of the Malacatos to the *s.* It is celebrated for its mountains abounding in bark, the best that is known, a preference being given to that gathered in the *e.* part of the same mountain. These woods grow upon the top of difficult rocks, so as to render the operation of gathering the bark extremely hazardous. The mountain is also known by the name of Cordillera of Caxanuma.

URMIAI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Paria in Peru, and of the archbishopric of Charcas; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Poopo.

URMIRI, a settlement of the province and government of Potosi in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Salinas.

URON, a river of the province and government of Darien and kingdom of Tierra Firme. It runs *s.* and then turns *e.* to enter the Pacific Sea. On its shores the Indians have many dwellings, as the territory is very fertile and delightful.

URSOLA, S. a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Quechula, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tepeaca in Nueva España. It contains two families of *Mustees*, and 50 of Indians, and is very close to its head settlement.

URU, a river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia, which enters the Apure.

URUANA, a settlement of the same province and government as the former, on the shore of the river Orinoco, on the *e.* side. It is one of the missions which were held by this river by the Jesuits, and is now under the charge of the Capuchin fathers.

URUANI, a small river of the province and government of Cumaná, which runs *s.* and enters the Cuyuni by the *n.* side.

URUAPAN, San Francisco de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It is of a mild temperature; situate at the entrance of the *sierra* of Mechoacán. In its district are nine wards surrounding it, in which dwell 125 Indian families, besides 50 in the settlement itself; there are also of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, about 200 others. The natives trade in seeds, the produce of the country, cattle, and cotton of which they make most beautiful woven stuffs; in wax, honey, wrought copper, troughs, chests, and other articles of carpentry. It has a convent of religious of St. Francis, and is 12 leagues *s. w.* of its capital.

URUBAMBA, a province and *corregimiento* of the kingdom of Peru. It is only $3\frac{1}{2}$ leagues long, and two wide; seven leagues distant from Cuzco. It was called of Yucay in the time of the Indians, and is now the marquisate of Oropesa. It has in its district various estates, which yield wheat, maize, and other vegetable productions; and in which there are some great salines, by which Cuzco is provided. The country is cheerful, pleasant, fertile, and abounding in many the most exquisite fruits. Through it runs the river Pilcomayo, which is crossed by two bridges of rushes, and in it are found many trout of delicate flavour. It contains different families of Indians of noble origin but very poor; and the number of the whole of the inhabitants should amount to 5000. The capital is the town of the same name, [on the shore of the river Quillabamba, or Ufubamba, or Vilcabamba, to the *n.* of Cuzco, in lat. 13° 16′ *s.* and long. 71° 31′ *w.*]

URUBAQUARA, a settlement of the province and country of Las Amazonas in the part possessed by the Portuguese, on the shore of the river of that name.

Urubaquara, a river of this province, which rises in the territory of the Carpinas Indians, runs *s.* and enters the Amazonas, between those of Curupatuba and Purú.

URUBU, S. Antonio de, a village and settlement of the Portuguese, in the province and *captainship* of Todos Santos and kingdom of Brazil; on the shore of the grand river of San Francisco.

Urubu, another settlement, in the province and *captainship* of Sergipe del Rey in the same kingdom, also on the shore of the river San Francisco, and near its mouth.

Urubu, a river of the province and country of Las Amazonas, in the part possessed by the Portuguese. It runs to *s. s. e.* and loses itself in the great pool of waters which is formed by different arms of the Marañon in the territory of the Urabaquis Indians.

URUCANGUA, a small river of the province and *captainship* of Rey in Brazil, which rises near the coast, runs *e.* and enters the sea by the side of the rocks of Santa Marta.

URUGUAY, a province or extent of country of S. America; bounded *n.* by the province of Guairá in the government of Paraguay, *s.* by the mouth of the river La Plata, *e.* by the province and *captainship* of Rey in Brazil, and *w.* by the river Paraná. Its length from *n. e.* to *s. w.* is somewhat more than 200 leagues, and its width from *e.* to *w.* about 130, although in some parts it be narrower. It is divided by the river of its name into *e.* and *w.* This rises in the mountains of the kingdom of Brazil, and runs for more than 620 miles in a direct line with an extraordinary violence, making a terrible noise amongst the rocks, and in the winter season it swells to such a degree as to appear like a sea.

This country was inhabited by the Cassapiminian Indians, and is, for the greater part, plain, but abounding in thick woods, in which are infinite numbers of wild animals and birds, especially parrots; also, the *llanuras* were formerly thickly inhabited by ostriches, lions, *dainos*, and goats; and on both shores of the river there are large pastures, where breed innumerable herds of horses and wild cows.

Uruguay, a large, abundant, and navigable river of the province and government of Paraguay. It rises in lat. 26° 30′ *s.* and collecting various other streams, traverses a vast extent of country to *s. e.* [Its length, in a direct line from

its source to its mouth, being more than 620 miles and receiving the waters of the Papiri, Ibicuiti, Timbey, Tibiquari, Ibicapiuti, Negro, and others, as far as lat. 34° *s.* It enters the river La Plata, near Buenos Ayres, to the *w. n. w.* of the colony of Sacramento, which belonged to the Portuguese, being joined a little below this place by the immense tributary stream of the Parana, which serves also to swell the river La Plata.]

URUGUAY, another, a small river in the same province and government, which runs *e.* and also enters the Parana, near the grand river of Curituba.

URUGUAIFOSTA, a river of the province and *captainship* of San Pablo in Brazil, which runs *n. n. w.* and enters the Uruguay.

URUGUAI-MERIN, a river of the same province and government as the former, which runs to the same rhumb not far from the former, and enters also the Uruguay.

URUGUAI-PITA, a river of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *e.* and enters, very abundant, into the Uruguay, opposite the mouth of the Pepiri guazu.

URUICARASI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chayanta or Charcas in Peru.

URULONGA. See URUNCAGUA.

URUMPE, a river of the province and country of Las Amazonas, which rises between those of Madera and Anilore, and enters the former.

URUNDEI-YURU, a fort of the province and government of Paraguay, with a garrison of Spaniards to restrain the incursions of the Infidel Indians.

URUPARATE, a river of the province and country of Las Amazonas, one of those of which the waters are tributary to the Marañon: between the Yume and the Curutate.

URUPI, a small river of the same province and country as the former, and in the territory of the Portuguese, which runs *e.* and joins the Marañon just at its entrance into the sea.

URUPIRA, a river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia. It rises near the settlement of the missions of San Joseph de Otomayos, runs *w.* and enters the Orinoco close to the settlement of Nuestra Señora de los Angeles.

URUSSA, a small river of the province and country of Las Amazonas, which rises in the territory of the Mayorunas Indians, runs *n.* close to the Macobas, and enters the Marañon opposite the settlement of S. Carlos de Carachis.

URUTA, a small river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia. It is formed by various streams in the country of the Paudacotos Indians, runs *n.* and turning afterwards its course to *e.* enters the Paragua.

URUTPA, a small river of the same province and government as the former. It rises in the country of the Achirigotos Indians, runs *n. w.* and enters the Caroni.

USIACUSI, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the channel which runs from the swamp of Turbaco into the sea.

USICAYOS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Carabaya in Peru, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Caoza.

USCHAICOCHA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canta, in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pari.

USME, a settlement of the *corregimiento* of Indians of Ubaque, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a cold temperature, fertile in wheat, papas, barley and other productions of this climate; has very few housekeepers and less Indians, although the inhabitants of the settlement of Tunzuelo, which has been extinguished, has been added to it: three leagues *s. e.* of Santa Fé.

USPA-LLACTA, or USPALLATA, which, in the Chilian language, means land of ashes. It is a spot of the kingdom of Chile, in the territory of the city of Mendoza, celebrated for its rich gold mines, which are very abundant, and as especially are those of San Romualdo and of San Nicholas de Bari.

[USPA-LLACTA, or USPALLATA, the name of one of the largest and richest silver mines in the kingdom of Chile, from whence the three sorts of ores are extracted; one of these, the black ore, is held in particular estimation by the miners, and is so called from its matrix being of a dark colour. Those of them who are experienced, are scarcely ever deceived in this ore, and, whenever they strike upon a new vein, can nearly determine by the eye the quantity of silver which it will yield. This ore presents three very distinct varieties, though differing but little in appearance. The first, called *negrillo*, resembles the scoria of iron, and affords no apparent indication of silver. The second, the *rossicloro*, which is distinct from the red silver ore, and yields a red powder when filed; it is very rich, although its external appearance is not promising. The third, the

piombo-ronca, the richest of all, as it is mineralized with a very small quantity of sulphur; it is much more easily separated than the others, which require a more laborious and complicated operation. This mine is situate upon the eastern mountains of that portion of the Andes, forming a part of the province of Aconcagua. On the top of these mountains is a large plain, called Uspollata, of more than 17 leagues in length and three in breadth; it is watered by a pleasant river and covered with delightful groves; the air is healthy and temperate, and the soil fertile. This plain serves as a base to another more elevated, called Paramillo, upon which the Andes of the first rank rise to such a height as to be seen distinctly at San Luis de la Punta, a distance of 120 leagues. The mine of Uspallata extends along the base of the eastern mountains of the plain of the same name, from latitude 33°, in a direct *n.* course, but the termination of it is unknown; for we have been assured, by persons who have followed it for 30 leagues, that it continues to be equally abundant at that distance; and there are those who assert that it is a ramification of the celebrated mine of Potosi. The principal vein is nine feet in breadth, but it branches out upon both sides into several that are smaller, which extend to the neighbouring mountains, and are said to exceed 30 miles in length. This mine is found to increase in richness in proportion to its depth. It was discovered in the year 1638, but although at first it furnished the strongest indication of its wealth, from want of labourers, or some other cause, it was neglected until 1763, but since that period has been constantly wrought with immense profit.]

USPAS, a barbarous nation of Indians of the province and government of Mainas, in the kingdom of Quito, who inhabit the woods on the borders of the Tigre. It was very numerous, but through the continual wars it has maintained, their numbers have been much diminished.

USQUIL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Guamachuco in Peru.

USUMASINTLA, a river of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Tabasco in Nueva España. It rises in the country of the Lacandones Indians and enters the sea.

USUPAMA, a river of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia, which rises *w.* of the river Caroni, runs *e.* and unites itself with the Cuyuni and Yuruari.

Usupama, a *sierra* or *cordillera* of mountains of the same province and government, which runs *s. e.* nearly parallel with the Rinscote, enters the river Caroni and the Cuyuni.

UTAC San Pedro de, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas in Peru, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chuquibamba.

UTATLAN, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Chiapa, in the kingdom of Guatemala, and of the head settlement of the district of that of Comitlán.

UTAWAS, a settlement of Indians of this nation in Canada, near the bay of Saguana, to the *e.* between that bay and the lake Huron.

Utawas, another settlement in the same province, between the Lakes Erie and St. Clare, on the shore of the strait or arm by which these lakes are communicated.

Utawas, a large and abundant river of the same province, which rises near the Lake Nipissing, runs *e.* and enters by two arms into the St. Lawrence, forming the island of Montreal. [This river divides Upper and Lower Canada, and, more properly speaking, falls into Jesus Lake, 118 miles *s. w.* of Quebec. It receives the waters of Timmiskamain, 360 miles from its mouth; 85 miles above which is called Montreal River.]

UTCAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxatambo in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of its capital.

UTCHIVAO, a river of the province and government of La Guayana or Neuva Andalucia. It rises from the Lake Icupa, runs *n.* and enters the Paragua very near the entrance of this into the Caroni.

UTEC, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Lucanas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of its capital.

UTEN, a river of the kingdom of Chile, on the shore of which stands the city Imperial. It rises in the *cordillera* of the Andes, and runs *w.* until it enters the S. Sea. Some call it the Cautén. [It forms at its mouth a small bay, which is 66 miles *n.* of the city of Valdivia, and 120 *s.* of the city of Conception, in lat. 38° 44′ *s.*]

UTILA, a small island of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Honduras, opposite the mouth of the Comecuero.

Utila, a small river of this province, which enters the sea.

UTQUVU, a small river of the province and colony of Surinam, in the part of Guayana possessed by the Dutch. It rises in the *sierra* of Rinocote, forms a semicirle, and enters the Camarin.

UTRECHT, a small settlement of the province of New York in the United States of N. America, *n. w.* of Long Island, three miles *e.* of Hendric, and eight *n. w.* of New York. [It has a Dutch church, and contained, in 1790, 562 inhabitants; of whom 76 were electors, and 206 were slaves.]

UTUN-SULLA, an antient and small province of the kingdom of Peru, conquered and united by the monarch Yahuar-huacac, an hereditary prince and son of Inca Roca, sixth emperor.

UTZILA, San Felipe de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Chinantla, and *alcaldía mayor* of Cozamaloapan in Nueva España; founded on a plain surrounded by craggy mountains, and watered by a river, which is an arm of the Alvarado. It contains 190 families of Indians, who live by the commerce of maize and cotton, which it produces in abundance, and which is sold in the jurisdiction of Teutila, by which it is bounded by the *s. s. e.* and many leagues *e.* of Mexico.

UVINA, a large, beautiful, and fertile *llanura* of the province and *corregimiento* of Ica in Peru. It is full of vines, olives, and all kinds of fruits, and is sufficiently peopled.

[UXBRIDGE, a township of Massachusetts, Worcester county, 38 miles *s. w.* of Boston. It was taken from Mendon, and incorporated in 1727, and Northbridge was afterwards taken from it. It contained in 1790, 180 dwelling-houses, and 1308 inhabitants. It is bounded *s.* by the state of Rhode Island. Not far from Shoe-log Pond, in the *s. w.* part of the town, there is an iron mine which is improved to considerable advantage.]

[Uxbridge, in the *e.* riding of the county of York, Upper Canada, is to the *n.* and in the rear of Pickering.]

UMAXAQUE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Zayula in Nueva España. It contains 45 families of Indians, 15 of *Mustees* and Mulatoes, and is two leagues *s. w.* of its capital.

UZAMACIN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Cinantla and *alcaldía mayor* of Cozamaloapán in Nueva España. It is of an hot and moist temperature, situate between two mountains, and inhabited by 30 families of Indians who exercise themselves in the cultivation of cotton; seven leagues *s.* of its head settlement and 50 from the capital.

V

VA, a river of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises from a lake belonging to it of its name, and running *e.* after making many windings, enters the Guabiare.

VACA, a small island of the N. Sea, one of the smaller Antilles; three leagues distant from the island of St. Domingo; it is of a very fertile territory, has two or three very good ports, and admirably adapted for commerce with the Spanish coasts and with Guayana. It abounds greatly in cattle. [It is one of the Tortugas, or Florida Keys, to the *e.* of Bahia Honda; the distance between them is four leagues, and the coast in its direction turns to the *n.* On the *s.* side of Cayo Vaca, about eight miles from the *w.* end, there are wells of fresh water. A thick range of isles go by this name. Bahia Honda is in lat. 24° 35′ *n.*]

[Vaca, called also the Cow's, or Neat's, Tongue, a low point on the *w.* coast of Chile, in S. America, which bounds the Bay of Tonguey to the *w.*]

VACARIA, a settlement of the province and *captainship* of Rey in Brazil, at the source and on the shore of the river Anta.

VACARIMA, a *cordillera* of the most lofty mountains in the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia; which divides this province into *s.* or de Caribana, and into *n.* or de Paria. From these mountains rise many rivers, which run *n.* and repair to the Orinoco; and others which run *e. s. e.* and enter the sea. These mountains run 120 leagues from *n. e.* to *s. w.*, and in them dwell many Caribees Indians, besides a multitude of wild beasts and animals.

VACAS, a river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs *s.* near the Uruguay and parallel to it, and enters the Plata, opposite a single island at its entrance.

VACAS, another river in the province and kingdom of Guatemala.

[VACCA, the same as VACA, which see.]

[VACHE, or Cow's ISLAND, lies on the *s.* coast of the *s.* peninsula of the island of St. Domingo, and is about 9 or 10 miles long, and in the broadest part three and a half, from *n.* to *s.* The *w.* point is six miles *e.* of Point Abacou; and in lat. 18° 4′ *n.* and long. 73° 37′ *w.* It has a very good soil, with two or three tolerable ports, and lies very conveniently for trade with the Spanish colonies on the continent, and with Cayenne. The seamen call this Ash Island, a corruption from Vash, as it is pronounced.]

[VACHE ET LE TORREAU, or COW AND BULL ROCKS, on the *s.* coast of Newfoundland Island, are about a mile *s. e.* of Cape St. Mary, which is the point between the deep bay of Placentia on the *w.* and St. Mary's Bay on the *e.* They are fair above water, but there are others near them which lurk under water.]

VACHE, CUL DE SAC, a settlement and parish of the French in the island of Martinique; a curacy of the Capuchin fathers; situate on the shore of the great bay of the Cul de Sac Royal.

VADELORGE, Bay of, in the island of Guadalupe, between the bay of Rocroi and the river Plesis.

VADIRAGUATO, a small jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, and part of the province of Culiacán in the kingdom of Nueva Vizcaya, *w.* of the *Sierra Madre*, of a hot temperature, mountainous and rough country, and containing some settlements of Indians, which were held by the Jesuits of the province of Cinaloa; also different *ranchos* of Spaniards, who cultivate much sugar-cane. It is bounded *e.* by the province of Cinaloa, in the part which they call the Jurisdictions, on the high road.

The capital is the settlement of its name, a reduction of Indians made by the missionaries of the Jesuits; the same is situate in the middle of the *sierra*, and on the shore of the river Piastla.

VAES, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán in Peru, near the river San Miguel.

[VAE's ISLAND, ANTHONY, a small island on the *e.* coast of Brazil, in S. America. It lies to the *s.* of the sandy Receif, and opposite to it, which is joined to the continent by a bridge.]

VAGUA, a large *llanura* of the province and government of Juan de Bracamoros in the kingdom of Quito. It is very fertile, and of an hot climate, but healthy, and abounding in wild honey. It was formerly well peopled with Indians, but it at present contains only few.

VAGUARE, a river of the province and government of Neiva in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; it runs nearly *e.* and enters the grand river Magdalena.

VAISEAUX, a large island of the N. Sea, near the coast of Louisiana, between the mouths of the rivers Morilla and Mississippi; it has a small port.

VAL DE BENITO, a large fertile, and beautiful valley of the island of La Laxa in the kingdom of Chile, between the rivers Huaque and Culavi.

VALDIVIA, a city and capital of the province and government of this name, in the kingdom of Chile; founded by Pedro de Valdivia, the celebrated conqueror, in 1552. It is situate on the shore of the river of the same denomination, on the top of a fertile and lofty plain, advantageously situate and well fortified. It serves as a garrison for the confinement of criminals and delinquents of the kingdom of Peru, and is not large. The Araucanos Indians burnt and destroyed it entirely in 1603; and the Dutch, commanded by Admiral Henry Brun, attempted to settle themselves in it in 1643, but did not succeed. In 1645, it was rebuilt and repeopled by the Colonel Don Alonso de Villanueva, by order of the Viceroy of Peru, the Marquis of Mancera, who fortified it at a great expence; so that it became one of the finest places in all America. It has a good fort in the same river, well defended with four castles, of the names of Mancera, Niebla, Amargos, and Corral. In its territory are some very rich gold mines, which were formerly worked to great profit, but now abandoned. The government of this city was independent of the Presidency of Chile, and subject only to the Viceroy of Lima; but it was afterwards united to the former, on account of its great distance from the capital of Peru, and the difficulty of receiving necessary and quick advices. In 1737, the city suffered much by an earthquake, [and more lately by fire twice, by which the greater part of it has been destroyed. It is, however, still inhabited by some most illustrious families; is 183 miles *s.* from La Conception; in lat. 39° 48′ *s.* and long. 73° 27′ 30″ *w.* This city declared its independence as early as August, 1613. See VALPARAISO, also for a further interesting account of its earlier history, see CHILE, index to additional history respecting that country, cap. iv.]

The aforesaid river is one of the most cele-

brated in that kingdom. It runs from the centre of it, dividing it into two parts, to enter the N. Sea by the *n.* side; and is so limpid, clear, and deep, that ships of the greatest burden come close up to the city, which is three leagues from its mouth, and are unladen by means merely of a plank. Its mouth is narrowed by two mountains; the one, which is the larger, on the *n.* part, called Bonifacio, and the other smaller on the *s.*, called Gonzalo. A little higher up the river becomes still narrower, and this part is considered the key of the port aforesaid, and of various others. The same narrow pass is girt in by two mountains, so close as to be within two musket shot of each other, that on the *s.* part is called De los Manzanas, and the opposite, De Nieva. In leaving this strait, there is, on the *s.* side, the port Del Corral, which has this name from the shelter afforded it from the mountains of the main shore; a large bay being thus formed, capable of containing an infinite number of ships.

[The harbour of Valdivia is the safest, the strongest from its natural position, and the most capacious of any of the ports in the S. Sea. The island of Manzera, situate just in the mouth of the river, forms two passages, bordered by steep mountains, and strongly fortified. As this is a port of the most importance of any in the Pacific, a governor is always sent from Spain, who possesses reputation as a military officer, and is under the immediate direction of the president of the kingdom. He has under his command a considerable number of troops, who are officered by the five *castellans*, or commanders of the castles, a serjeant major, a proveditor, an inspector, and several captains. For the pay of the soldiers 36,000 crowns are annually sent hither from the royal treasury of Peru, and the provisions requisite for their subsistence from the other ports of Chile. The Jesuits had formerly a college here; there are besides some convents of Franciscans, and of the Brothers of Charity, with a royal hospital, and the parish church.]

The fields and territories on the shores of this river are most fertile, and yield much wheat, pulse, and fruit, though the grapes here come to no perfection. The territory abounds in all kinds of cattle and birds, and in timber excellent for building ships; and not less so in mines of gold, of as rich quality as that of the mines of Carabaya in Peru, which is the best known. This river was discovered by Pedro de Valdivia, conqueror of Chile, who gave it his name.

VALENCIA, a city of the province and government of Venezuela, in the Nueva Reyno de Granada; founded by Alonzo Diaz Moreno, by order of the Governor Villacenda, in 1555, (and not in 1573, as is wrongly asserted by the Ex-Jesuit Coleti) in a beautiful *llanura*, half a league from the lake Tacarigua. It is small, of a hot temperature, but fertile, and abounding in *cacoa* and cattle, in which its commerce consists, and which would have made it opulent but for the great sloth of its natives, and from the circumstance of its having been sacked by pirates in 1677. It is well built, and has a very good parish-church, and a convent of religious of St. Francis. It was the theatre of the cruelties which were perpetrated by the tyrant Lope de Aguirre.

[The present population of this city, according to a census taken in 1801, is 6,548 souls; but by other more correct calculations, it amounts to more than 8,000. The inhabitants are Creoles, and descendants from very ancient families, but there are a few Biscayans, and some settlers from the Canaries.

The streets are broad, and are generally paved, the houses are without stories. The parish church, and a handsome square in which it stands, form the principal ornaments of the city. In 1804, a church was built in the *e.* extremity of the town, the expence being defrayed by the liberality of the settlers from the Canaries, and the alms of the faithful. It was dedicated to Our Lady of La Candelaria. The Franciscans had a convent of eight monks here, about 50 years ago.

What Alçedo relates of the apathy of the inhabitants seems but too true; they are reputed to be the most indolent people of the whole province; nay, to such a degree did their sloth arrive, that, in order to prevent a famine, the governor was obliged to compel every person upon oath, and under a severe penalty, to collect for their individual use a certain specified quantity of provisions. Since this time the Valencians have become more industrious, and it is to be hoped that in time they will profit by the advantages which their city possesses.

The distance hence to Puerto Cavello is 10 leagues, the road is good, but another is now cutting, which will reduce the distance of the two places to only six leagues.

All the produce of the interior, which is shipped at Puerto Cavallo, necessarily passes through Valencia, so that the city is exceedingly well supplied with provisions of every description.

[The vallies of Aragon, the jurisdictions of San Philippe, San Carlos, San Juan Baptiste del Pao, Tocuyo, and Baraquisimeto, cannot send their produce or their beasts to Puerto Cavello, but through this city. The inhabitants might consequently make their town the emporium of the whole province, which would be of as much benefit to the people of the interior as to themselves. The Valencians are thought to possess capacity, but their dispositions are more adapted to the sciences than to agriculture.

Valencia remained firm to the cause of Ferdinand up to the year 1810, when it was compelled to submit to Miranda, and shortly after, in the same year, became the seat of the New Congress of United States of Venezuela; who, by having fortunately for themselves, removed to this place, were thus delivered from the calamity of the dreadful earthquake, which happened at Caracas on April 19, 1810. It soon after became occupied by the Royalist party, and was afterwards delivered by capitulation, made by the Spanish General Blake, to Count Suchet, commander in chief of the imperial army of Aragon, January 9, 1812. Its possession, being lost, was again disputed by Miranda, who, in this year, entered into a convention with Monteverde, the governor, and afterwards by Bolivar, the latter of whom entered the city on August 1, 1813, without the least opposition, it having been abandoned by the enemy. He found there an immense park of artillery, with a great quantity of ammunition and muskets.

This city is 115 miles *s. e.* from the city of Coro, 77 *s. w.* from that of Caracas, and 14 from Burburata, in lat. 10° 9′ *n.* long. 68° 15′ *w.* Reaumer's thermometer is generally from 16° to 23°.]

Valencia, another, a small city in the province and government of Maracaibo, in the same kingdom; situate in one of the craggy *sierras*.

Valencia, a settlement, called also Cerro de Tome, of the missions which were held by the religious of St. Francis, in the kingdom of Nuevo Mexico, in N. America.

Valencia, a lake of the province and government of Venezuela in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, called by the Indians *Tacarigua*. The surrounding climate is temperate and wholesome, and the banks are fertile and picturesque. Oviedo, nearly a century ago, asserted the size of this lake to be 14 leagues long and 6 broad; Cisneros, in 1764, affirmed it to be 18 or 20 leagues long and nearly 6 broad, and in the map of Venezuela, published in 1787, its dimensions were 10 Castellian leagues in length, and three and a half in breadth. Authors have varied equally as to its situation and utility, but the true dimensions are, from *n. e.* to *w. s. w.* 24 miles, and in its broadest part it is nine. Its form is an oblong, it lies five miles from Valencia, and six from the sea, in a valley surrounded by mountains, excepting on the *w.* side. The mountains between it and the sea are inaccessible; twenty rivers empty themselves into this lake, from which circumstance, together with the attraction by which all bodies are evidently drawn from its extremities to its centre, it is supposed to have a subterraneous communication with the sea.

On the eastern shore are five plantations of tobacco, belonging to the crown, and employing 15,000 persons. The other banks are variously cultivated by individuals.

By this lake is transported the produce which grows on its shores and on the banks of the neighbouring rivers. The navigation is far from easy, on account of the centrifugal attraction just mentioned, and the number of little islands, which are so scattered as to render it almost impossible to use a sail. One of the islands, Caratapona, has a small population, and a spring of water of much better quality than that of the lake.

The *silicus bagre* and the *blennius pholis lins*, and what the Spaniards call *guavina*, are the only fish found here, but all these are in great plenty. There is also abundance of water-game, and various birds of exquisite plumage are to be found on the banks, as well as numerous lizards and other reptiles; one sort of lizard, the *iguana*, the Spaniards and Indians are very fond of.

VALENTIN, S. Bay of, on the *w.* coast of the Strait of Maire, between the Cape of Buen Suceso (Good Success) and the Port Mauricio. It lies open, and has a bad bottom.

Valentin, a river which runs *e.* and enters the sea in the former bay.

Valentin, a cape or point of land, of the *e.* coast of the Straits of Magellan, between the Bay of Papagayos and the Point of Boqueron.

VALERO, San Francisco Xavier de, a town, capital and garrison of the Nuevo Reyno de Toledo in N. America, this name having been given it in honour to the Marquis of Valero, Viceroy of Nueva España, by whose order it was founded.

[VALLADOLID, an intendancy of the kingdom of Nueva España. It was, according to the description of Humboldt, at the period of the Spanish conquest, made a part of the kingdom of Michuacan or Mechoacan, which extended from the Rio de Zacatula to the port de]

[la Navidad, and from the mountains of Xala and Colima to the river of Lerma, and the lake of Chapala. The capital of this kingdom of Mechoacan, which, like the republics of Tlaxcala, Huexocingo, and Cholula, was always independent of the Mexican empire, was Tzintzontzan, a town situate on the banks of a lake, infinitely picturesque, called the Lake of Patzquaro, Tzintzontzan, which the Aztec inhabitants of Tenochtitlan called Huitzitzila, is now only a poor Indian village, though it still preserves the pompous title of city.

The intendancy of Valladolid, vulgarly called in the country Mechoacan, is bounded on the *n.* by the Rio de Lerma, which farther *e.* takes the name of Rio Grande de Santiago. On the *e.* and *n. e.* it joins the intendancy of Mexico; on the *n.* the intendancy of Guanaxuato; and on the *w.* that of Guadalaxara. The greatest length of the province of Valladolid, from the port of Zacatula to the basaltic mountains of Palangeo, in a direction from *s. s. e.* to *n. n. e.* is 78 leagues. It is washed by the S. Sea for an extent of coast of more than 38 leagues.

Situate on the *w.* declivity of the *cordillera* of Anahuac, intersected with hills and charming vallies, which exhibit to the eye of the traveller a very uncommon appearance under the torrid zone, that of extensive and well watered meadows, the province of Valladolid in general enjoys a mild and temperate climate, exceedingly conducive to the health of the inhabitants. It is only when we descend the table-land of Ario, and approach the coast that we find a climate in which the new colonists, and frequently even the indigenous, are subject to the scourge of intermittent and putrid fevers.

The most elevated summit of the intendancy of Valladolid is the Pic de Tancitaro, to the *e.* of Tuspan. Humboldt complains that he could never see it near enough to take an exact measurement of it; but there is no doubt that it is higher than the Volcan de Colina, and that it is more frequently covered with snow. To the *e.* of the Pic de Tancitaro, the Volcan de Jorullo (Xorillo, or Juruyo) was formed in the night of the 29th September, 1759. Bonpland, the fellow traveller of the Baron, reached its crater on the 19th September, 1803. The great catastrophe in which this mountain rose from the earth, and by which a considerable extent of ground totally changed its appearance, is, perhaps, one of the most extraordinary physical revolutions in the annals of the history of our planet. Geology points out the parts of the ocean, where, at recent epoquas within the last 2,000 years, near the Azores, in the Egean sea, and to the *s.* of Iceland, small volcanic islands have risen above the surface of the water; but it gives us no example of the formation, from the centre of a thousand small burning cones, of a mountain of scoria and ashes 517 metres, or 1,695 feet in height, comparing it only with the level of the old adjoining plains in the interior of a continent 36 leagues distant from the coast, and more than 42 leagues from every other active volcano. This remarkable phenomenon was sung in hexameter verses by the Jesuit Father Raphael Landivar, a native of Guatemala. It is mentioned by the Abbé Clavigero in the ancient history of his country, *Storia antica di Messico*, vol. i. p. 42; and yet it has remained unknown to the mineralogists and naturalists of Europe, though it took place not more than 60 years ago, and within six days journey of the capital of Mexico, descending from the central table land towards the shores of the S. Sea.

A vast plain extends from the hills of Aguasarco to near the villages of Teipa and Petatlan, both equally celebrated for their fine plantations of cotton. This plain, between the Picachos del Mortero, the Cerros de las Cuevas, y de Cuiche, is only from 750 to 800 metres, or from 2,460 to 2,624 feet, above the level of the sea. In the middle of a tract of ground in which porphyry with a base of grünstein predominates, basaltic cones appear, the summits of which are crowned with evergreen oaks of a laurel and olive foliage, intermingled with small palm-trees with flabelliform leaves. This beautiful vegetation forms a singular contrast with the aridity of the plain, which was laid waste by volcanic fire.

Till the middle of the 18th century, fields cultivated with sugar-cane and indigo, occupied the extent of ground between the two brooks, called Cuitamba and San Pedro. They were bounded by basaltic mountains, of which the structure seems to indicate that all this country, at a very remote period, had been already several times convulsed by volcanoes. These fields, watered by artificial means, belonged to the plantation *(hacienda)* of San Pedro de Xoullo, one of the greatest and richest of the country. In the month of June, 1759, a subterraneous noise was heard. Hollow noises of a most alarming nature *(bramillos)*, were accompanied by frequent earthquakes, which succeeded one ano-]

[ther for from 50 to 60 days, to the great consternation of the inhabitants of the *hacienda.* From the beginning of September every thing seemed to announce the complete re-establishment of tranquillity, when in the night between the 28th and 29th, the horrible subterraneous noise recommenced. The affrighted Indians fled to the mountains of Aguasarco. A tract of ground from nine to 12 square English miles in extent, which goes by the name of Malpais, rose up in the shape of a bladder. The bounds of this convulsion are still distinguishable in the fractured strata. The Malpais near its edges is only 12 metres, or 39 feet, above the old level of the plain, called the Playas de Xorillo; but the convexity of the ground thus thrown up increases progressively towards the centre to an elevation of 160 metres, or 524 feet.

Those who witnessed this great catastrophe from the top of Aguasarco assert that flames were seen to issue forth for an extent of more than half a square league, that fragments of burning rocks were thrown up to prodigious heights, and that through a thick cloud of ashes, illumined by the volcanic fire, the softened surface of the earth was seen to swell up like an agitated sea. The rivers of Cuitamba and San Pedro precipitated themselves into the burning chasms. The decomposition of the water contributed to invigorate the flames, which were distinguishable at the city of Pascuaro, though situated on a very extensive table land 1,400 metres, or 4,592 feet, elevated above the plains of las Playas de Xorillo. Eruptions of mud, and especially of strata of clay enveloping balls of decomposed basaltes in concentrical layers, appear to indicate that subterraneous water had no small share in producing this extraordinary revolution. Thousands of small cones, from two to three metres, or from 6.5 feet to 9.8 feet in height, called by the indigenes ovens *(hornitos)* issued forth from the Malpais. Although within the last 15 years, according to the testimony of the Indians, the heat of these volcanic ovens has suffered a great diminution. Humbolt perceived the thermometer rise to 202 f. Fahrenheit, on being plunged into fissures which exhale an aqueous vapour. Each small cone is a fumorola, from which a thick vapour ascends to the height of 10 or 15 metres. In many of them a subterraneous noise is heard, which appears to announce the proximity of a fluid in ebullition.

In the midst of the ovens six large masses, elevated from 4 to 500 metres, from 312 to 1,640 feet, each above the old level of the plains, sprung up from a chasm, of which the direction is from the *n. n. e.* to the *s. s. e.* This is the phenomenon of the Montenovo of Naples, several times repeated in a range of volcanic hills. The most elevated of these enormous masses, which bears some resemblance to the puys de l'Auvergne, is the great Volcan de Xorillo. It is continually burning, and has thrown up from the *n.* side an immense quantity of scorified and basaltic lavas, containing fragments of primitive rocks. These great eruptions of the central volcano continued till the month of February, 1760. In the following years they became gradually less frequent. The Indians, frightened at the horrible noises of the new volcano, abandoned at first all the villages situated within seven or eight leagues distance of the playas de Jorullo. They became gradually, however, accustomed to this terrific spectacle; and having returned to their cottages, they advanced towards the mountains of Aguasarco and Santa Iñes, to admire the streams of fire discharged from an infinity of great and small volcanic apertures. The roofs of the houses of Queretaro were then covered with ashes at a distance of more than 48 leagues in a straight line from the scene of the explosion. Although the subterraneous fire now appears far from violent, and the Malpays and the great volcano begin to be covered with vegetables, the ambient air is heated to such a degree by the action of the small ovens *(hornitos)*, that the thermometer at a great distance from the surface and in the shade rises as high as 109° of Fahrenheit. This fact appears to prove that there is no exaggeration in the accounts of several old Indians, who affirm that for many years after the first eruption, the plains of Jorullo, even at a great distance from the scene of the explosion, were uninhabitable, from the excessive heat which prevailed in them.

The traveller is still shown, near the Cerro de Santa Iñes, the rivers of Cuitamba and San Pedro, of which the limpid waters formerly watered the sugar-cane plantation of Don André Pimentel. These streams disappeared in the night of the 29th September, 1759; but at a distance of 2,000 metres, or 6,561 feet, farther *w.* in the tract which was the theatre of the convulsion, two rivers are now seen bursting through the argilaceous vault of the *hornitos*, of the appearance of mineral waters, in which the thermometer rises to 126°.8 of Fahrenheit. The Indians continue to give them the names of San Pedro and Cuitambia, because in several parts of the Malpays great masses of water are heard]

[to run in a direction from *e.* to *w.* from the mountains of Santa Iñes towards the Hacienua (Estate) de la Presentacion. Near this habitation there is a brook, which disengages itself from the sulphureous hydrogen. It is more than seven metres in breadth, and is one of the most abundant hydro-sulphureous springs ever seen.

In the opinion of the Indians, these extraordinary transformations which we have been describing, the surface of the earth raised up and burst by the volcanic fire, and the mountains of scoria and ashes heaped together, are the work of the Monks. An attribute of power, singularly great and extraordinary; but the tradition is, that some Capuchin missionaries having come, in 1759, to preach at the plantation of San Pedro, and not having met with a favourable reception, they poured out an imprecation against the said plain, and prophesied that in the first place the plantation would be swallowed up by flames rising out of the earth, and that afterwards the ambient air would cool to such a degree that the neighbouring mountains would for ever remain covered with snow and ice. The former of these maledictions having already produced such fatal effects, the lower Indians contemplate in the increasing coolness of the volcano the sinister presage of a perpetual winter.

The position of the new Volcan de Jorullo gives rise to a very curious geological observation. In New Spain there is a parallel of great elevations, or a narrow zone contained between the 18° 59′ and the 19° 12′ of lat. in which all the summits of Anahuac which rise above the region of perpetual snow are situated. These summits are either volcanoes which still continue to burn, or mountains, which from their form as well as the nature of their rocks have in all probability formerly contained subterraneous fire. As we recede from the coast of the Atlantic, we find in a direction from *e.* to *w.* the Pic d'Orizaba, the two volcanoes of la Puebla, the Nevado de Toluca, the Pic de Tancitaro, and the Volcan de Colima. These great elevations, in place of forming the crest of the *cordillera* of Anahuac, and following its direction, which is from the *s. e.* to the *n. w.* are, on the contrary, placed on a line perpendicular to the axis of the great chain of mountains. It is undoubtedly worthy of observation, that in 1759 the new volcano of Xorillo was formed in the prolongation of that line, on the same parallel with the ancient Mexican volcanoes!

A single glance bestowed on Humboldt's plan of the environs of Xorillo will prove that the six large masses rose out of the earth, in a line which runs through the plain from the Cerro de las Cuevas to the Picacho del Mortero; and it is thus also that the *bocche nove* of Vesuvius are ranged along the prolongation of a chasm. Do not these analogies entitle us to suppose that there exists in this part of Mexico, at a great depth in the interior of the earth, a chasm in a direction from *e.* to *w.* for a length of 137 leagues, along which the volcanic fire bursting through the interior crust of the porphyritical rocks, has made its appearance at different epoquas from the Gulf of Mexico to the S. Sea? Does this chasm extend to the small group of islands, called by M. Collnet the Archipelago of Revillagigedo, around which, in the same parallel with the Mexican volcanoes, pumice-stone has been seen floating? Those naturalists who make a distinction between the facts which are offered us by descriptive geology and theoretical reveries on the primitive state of our planet, must forgive these general observations on the general map of New Spain. Moreover, from the lake of Cuiseo, which is impregnated with muriate of soda, and which exhales sulfuretted hydrogen as far as the city of Valladolid, for an extent of 40 square leagues, there are a great quantity of hot wells, which generally contain only muriatic acid, without any vestiges of terreous sulfates or metallic salts. Such are mineral waters of Chucandiro, Cuinche, San Sebastian, and San Juan Tararamco.

The extent of the intendancy of Valladolid is one-fifth less than that of Ireland, but its relative population is twice greater than that of Finland. In this province there are three cities (Valladolid, Tzintzontzan, and Pascuaro); three towns (Citaquaro, Zamora, and Charo); 263 villages; 205 parishes; and 326 farms. The imperfect enumeration of 1793 gave a total population of 289,314 souls, of whom 40,399 were male whites, and 39,081 female whites; 61,352 male Indians, and 58,016 female Indians; and 154 monks, 138 nuns, and 293 individuals of the secular clergy.

The Indians who inhabit the province of Valladolid form three races of different origin; the Tarascos, celebrated in the 16th century for the gentleness of their manners, for their industry in the mechanical arts, and for the harmony of their language, abounding in vowels; the Otomitos, a tribe yet very far behind in civilization, who speak a language full of nasal and guttural aspirations; and the Chichimecos, who, like the Tlascaltecos, the Nahuatlacos, and the Aztecos, have preserved the Mexican language. All the]

[*s.* part of the intendancy of Valladolid is inhabited by Indians. In the villages the only white figure to be met with is the curate, and he also is frequently an Indian or Mulatto. The benefices are so poor there that the bishop of Mechoacan has the greatest difficulty in procuring ecclesiastics to settle in a country where Spanish is almost never spoken, and where along the coast of the Great Ocean the priests, infected by the contagious miasmata of malignant fevers, frequently die before the expiration of seven or eight months.

The population of the intendancy of Valladolid decreased in the years of scarcity of 1786 and 1790; and it would have suffered still more if the benevolence of the bishop had not manifested itself in extraordinary sacrifices for the relief of the Indians. He voluntarily lost in a few months the sum of 230,000 francs, equal to 9,584*l.* sterling, by purchasing 50,000 fanegas of maize, which he sold at a reduced price to keep the sordid avarice of several rich proprietors within bounds, who, during that epoqua of public calamities, endeavoured to take advantage of the misery of the people.

The population of this intendancy amounted, by the census of 1803, to 376,400 souls; and its extent of surface, in square leagues, was 3,446, thus giving 109 inhabitants to the square league.

The most remarkable places of the province of Valladolid, are the following: Valladolid de Mechoacan, the capital; Pasquaro and Tzintzontzan; and it contains the mines of Zitaquaro, Angangueo, Tlapuxahua, the Real del Oro, and Ynguaran.]

Valladolid, a city and capital of the kingdom of Mechoacan, and of the above intendancy, in Nueva España; a head of a bishopric, erected in 1536, and founded by Captain Christoval de Olid, on the middle of a valley; from which word, being the appellation of its founder, it took the name of Valle de Olid, which has been corrupted into Valladolid, in imitation of that in Castilla: that spot was called the Guayangareo, in the idiom of the Tarascos Indians. It is in an extensive tableland, of a lofty plain, near two rivers, which rise in its vicinity; the one, which is small, to the *s. e.* of the city, in the part called the Rincon; and the other issuing from a lake to the *w.* and uniting itself with the former after it passes through the settlement, and then running in an abundant stream to fertilize the valley; its waters yielding a good supply of trout and *pexereyes*, called by the Indians *charare*.

The city has little claims to beauty, and less to commerce, although it is large, as being very scattered. Its population is composed of 500 families of Spaniards and *Mustees;* and although it contains some Indians, yet do these chiefly have their abode in the wards. [Humboldt rates its present population at 18,000.]

The cathedral, which was completed in 1738, is after the Tuscan order, and very handsome: belonging to it is the parish of Sagrario; and, besides this, it has another parish, called of San Joseph; also the convents of religious, of St. Francis, which is a house of Noviciates; of St. Augustin, Merced, the bare-footed Carmelites, an hospital of San Juan de Dios, and a college which belonged to the Jesuits; the monasteries of the Nuns of Santa Catalina, and of Capuchin Indian women; a college for poor female children, with the title of Santa Rosa, which was founded by the Bishop Don Francisco Pablo Matos Coronada; and a college of studies destined for the children of the province, founded by the Bishop Don Vasco de Quiroga.

[The elevation of Valladolid, above the level of the sea, is 1,950 metres, or 6,396 feet; and yet at this moderate height, and under the 19° 42′ of lat. snow has been seen to fall in the streets of Valladolid. This sudden change of atmosphere, caused no doubt by a *n.* wind, is much more remarkable than the snow which fell in the streets of Mexico the night before the Jesuit fathers were carried off! The new aqueduct by which the town receives potable water was constructed at the expense of the last bishop, Fray Antonio de San Miguel, and cost him nearly half a million of francs, or £20,835:—105 miles *w.* ¼ *n. w.* of Mexico, in long. 100° 51′ *w.* lat. 19° 42′ 30″ *n.* For an account of the present revolution, see Mexico; also Vera Cruz.]

Valladolid, another city, in the province and government of Yucatán, founded by Francisco de Montejo, the younger, in 1543, in a place called Choacá; and by the Indians, Chavachaa; from whence it was translated in the following year, from the unhealthiness of the spot, to where it now stands. It is small, and of a hot temperature; has a very good parish church, an hospital with the name of Jesus Maria, and a convent of religious of St. Francis, which is a small distance without the city; the rout to them being by a stone causeway, of about eight yards wide, and adorned on both sides by a beautiful poplar grove:—30 miles *w.* of the Gulf of Honduras, 170 *s. w.* of Truxillo, and 65 *s. e.* of Mérida.

Valladolid, another, of the province and

government of Jaen de Bracamoros, in the kingdom of Quito; founded by Juan de Salinas, in 1549, and not in 41, as asserts the ex-Jesuit Coleti. It is very small and poor, and rather a reduced settlement than a city:—38 miles *s.* of Loxa, in *w.* long. 79° 14′. lat. 4° 35′ 30″ *s.*

Valladolid, another city, of the province and government of Honduras. See Comayagua.

VALLE, San Juan del, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Loxa in the kingdom of Quito.

Valle, another settlement, with the dedicatory title of San Pedro, in the same province and kingdom as the former.

Valle, another with the dedicatory title of San Francisco, the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Zultepec in Nueva España. It contains 89 families of Indians, who maintain themselves by the cultivation of wheat and maize, and is six leagues *n. w.* of its capital.

Valle, another, with the dedicatory title of Santa Maria, in the province and *corregimiento* of Huanuco in Peru.

Valle, another, with the dedicatory title of Santa Ana, in the head settlement of the district of Quiatoni, and *alcaldía mayor* of Teutitlan in Nueva España. It contains 62 families of Indians, and is two leagues *e.* of its head settlement.

Valle, another, of the province and *corregimiento* of Tunja in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, in the *serrania.*

Valle, another, of the province and government of Venezuela, and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, of the district of the city of Caracas, in the *s.* part.

Valle, another, with the dedicatory title of Santa Cruz, in the province and *corregimiento* of Cañete in Peru.

Valle, another, with the dedicatory title of Nuestra Señora, of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the river Apure.

Valle, a river in the province and government of Tucumán, which runs *s. e.* in the jurisdiction of the city of Salta, and enters the Bermejo.

Valle, a fort of the same province and government as the former river, built on its shore to restrain the Infidel Indians.

Valle, a point of land, with the dedicatory title of Nuestra Señora del Valle, on the *n.* coast of the Straits of Magellan, between the Bay of Papagayos and the Point of Boqueron.

Valle, Punta del, a point in the Island of Tortuga near St. Domingo.

Valle Ameno, Santa Cruz de, a settlement of the missions which are held by the religious of San Francisco, in the province of Apolabamba and kingdom of Peru.

VALLEE, a bay of the coast of the river St. Lawrence in Nova Scotia, between the river Magdalen and another bay of the same name, but with the addition of Little, to distinguish it.

VALLEJUELO, a small river of the island of St. Domingo, which rises in the valley of San Juan, runs *n.* and unites itself with that of Cañas to enter the Artibonito.

Vallejuelo, another river in the same island, which runs *e.* and enters the Neiva.

VALLE-FERTIL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cuyo in the kingdom of Chile. It has this name from the great fertility of the valley in which it is founded, is bounded by the jurisdiction of Rioxa in the province and government of Tucumán, and in its district are abundance of small parrots, and others still less, called *caritas.*

VALLES, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, bounded by those of Tampico, Guadalcazar, and Guejutla, the line of demarcation terminating *e.* by the province of Tampico, at the river of Tamicé, which runs from *n.* to *s.* and by the *n.* by the tables of Castrejon, the same being the boundary between the Nuevo Reyno de Leon, and La Gran Tamaolipa. In these parts there were formerly some estates of Spaniards and missionaries, which are now desert through the hostilities of the barbarian Chichimecos; although, through the natural fertility of the country large herds of cattle are drove annually to its pastures, and attended by some militia companies. This jurisdiction is very extensive, one of the best of the kingdom, and enjoying different temperatures, and abounding in maize and other seeds, and sugar-canes, of which they make loaf-sugar; also in many of the settlements they fabricate loaf-sugar, bags of *pita,* and mats and baskets, with which a trade is carried on with the other provinces.

Valles, the capital, is the town of the same name, founded on a beautiful plain, on the shore of a river flowing down from a lofty *sierra.* It is of a hot and moist temperature, contains 242 families, the greater part of Spaniards, and the rest of *Mustees* and Mulattoes, who live, a great portion of the year, in the estates, and 75 of Indians. It was formerly a curacy and doctrinal establishment of the religious of San Francisco

de la Custodia de Tampico, [and is 150 miles *n.* of Mexico, in lat. 21° 45′ *n.* and long. 99° *w.*]

The other settlements of this district are the following:

Tamoin,	Soledad de las Canoas,
Tanquayalab,	Aquismón,
Tanquian,	Santa Catalina de Aztla,
Tampamolón,	Tancanhuichi,
Tamapache,	Xalcotán,
Tampasquin,	Mecatlán,
Talacun,	San Francisco,
La Laxa,	Matlapa,
Talanxas,	Xilitla,
Coxcatlán,	Tamitas,
S. Martin de Tlalchicuatla,	San Miguel,
Tampacán,	Palma,
Chapuluacán,	Tanchanaco,
Tamazunchale,	Huehuetlan,
Tanzozob,	San Agustin de Chalco,
Santa Maria,	San Antonio.
Guayabos,	

VALLE-UMBROSO, a settlement of the province and government of Cinaloa, one of the missions which were held by the Jesuits.

[VALLEY-FORGE, a place on Schuylkill River, 15 miles from Philadelphia. Here General Washington remained with his army, in huts, during the winter of 1777, after the British had taken possession of that city.]

VALPARAISO, or Valparaisa, a city and capital of the province and government of this name in the kingdom of Chile; situate one part on the skirt of a mountain which lies to the *n. e.*, and the other part on the top; so that it is divided into High and Low Town. It began to be peopled at the end of the last (16th) century, with the intention of carrying out from it wheat to Lima, as it produces much of this article, and of an excellent quality, and, in fact, the trade in it is now very great.

It has a good parish-church, and two convents; the one of San Francisco, and the other of San Augustin; also a college which belonged to the Jesuits, and now occupied by the religious of St. Domingo, and a house for exercises. Besides the town, which is situate to the *s.* of the bay, there is on the *e.* a *llanura* named Del Almendral, where there is a convent of La Merced and some population, and where it would have been better if the city had been built, were it not that this part is much exposed to inundations from the sea, and that the anchorage is towards the *s.* —Towards the *e.* there are some excavations made in the mountain to give greater extent of shore.

The city is defended by three castles, the first called Castillo Viejo, at the entrance of the port, with a battery on a level with the water; the second Castillo Grande, which is where the governor resides; and the third, which is on the top of a hill, can hinder an enemy from embarking in the Almendral. In this city there are many storehouses in which to deposit effects of the kingdom destined for Peru, as well as to house those coming from that kingdom. In fact all the commerce, which used to be carried on at the Port of Concepcion, has been transferred to this as being nearer. The time of the navigation is between the months of June and September, and in this period vessels make three voyages from Callao to Valparaiso, and this traffic keeps in continual employ the mule-droves of all the neighbouring settlements. In the winter-time, however, the masters of the store-houses alone remain at Valparaiso, the rest of the people retiring to the estates in the country. The territory here abounds in all kinds of excellent fruit, especially apples, which they call *de quillota.* The inhabitants are reputed to amount to 2000. Valparaiso is chiefly to be noted for its capacious and excellent harbour, and for its commercial situation, whereby it commands all the trade of Spain and Peru.

[The revolution that has proceeded with such violence throughout the rest of the Spanish colonies, has been confined in the kingdom of Chile, for the most part, to differences between the parties of the natives of that presidency. The fact is, that the Spaniards have here little concern with the government, and have not been molested as not having interfered with the transactions that were taking place. It could hardly be otherwise than that Chile should thus become friendly to the insurgent cause; and we accordingly find that as early as August 1813, the Chilians at Valdivia, Concepcion, Valparaiso, and Coquimbo, had declared themselves independent, and had opened their ports to all nations. American frigates receive supplies from them, and an American agent has been appointed to reside at the inland town of Santiago. The British government is aware of this, and it is owing to their wise dispositions, and the naval force now cruizing on that coast, that the American frigate the Essex has been just captured in leaving the port of Valparaiso. This city is about 230 miles *n. n. e.* of

Concepcion, in lat. 33° 2′ 36″ *s.* and long. 71° 44′ 30″ *w.*]

VALPARAISO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xerez in Nueva España. Eight leagues *n. n. w.* of its capital.

VALTERIE, a settlement of the French in Canada, on the shore of the river St. Lawrence, near the settlement of St. Sulpice.

VALVERDE, a small city of the province and *corregimiento* of Ica in Peru, in a valley which is always green, fertile, pleasant, and abounding in vines; with a good port, in lat. 11° *s.* long. 304° 55′ *w.*

VAMBA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Quito in the district of Las Cinco Leguas, and *w.* of the capital.

VANAMA, a lake of the province and country of Las Amazonas, or part of Guayana, possessed by the Portuguese. It is formed by a waste-water of the river Maracapuru, and enters the abundant stream of the Purú or Cuchivara.

VANAMAQUEMA, another lake of the same province and territory as the above. It is formed by an arm of the river Marañon, or the channel by which this communicates with the great river Purú, or Cuchivara.

[VANCOUVER, also QUADRA, one of the largest islands of the *n. w.* coast of America, close to Nootka. For further account, see Vol. iii. p. 220. of this work.]

[VANCOUVER's Fort, in Kentucky, stands at the junction of the two branches of Big Sandy River, 20 miles *n.* of Harmar's Station.]

[VAN DYKES, JOST and LITTLE, two of the smaller Virgin Islands; situate to the *n. w.* of Tortola. Lat. 18° 28′ *n.* Long. 64° 46′ *w.*]

[VANNSTOWN, in the country of the Cherokees, lies on a branch of Alabama River.]

VANGHAM, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the district of the parish of St. George.

VAPISBE, a settlement of the province and government of Sonora in N. America.

VARACA, an arm of the river Parime, or Paravinanas, one of the four arms belonging to this river; the third, and that by which it communicates with the Negro.

VARAIS, a barbarous nation of Indians who dwell in the vicinities of the lake of Los Xarayes, in the province and government of Paraguay; bounded by the Xarayes Indians on the *n.* and the Gorgotoques on the *s. w.*

VARANACO, a small river of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises near the source of the Paucana, runs *e.* and enters the Orinoco, opposite the rapid stream of the Carichana.

VARARI, a small river of the province and country of Las Amazonas, in the part possessed by the Portuguese. It runs and enters the river Negro, close to the settlement of the missions called San Cayetano.

VARCA, a large and abundant river of the province and government of Cayenne. It runs *e.* and enters the Atlantic Sea. On its shores are some beautiful plantations of sugar canes, of which is made excellent sugar.

VARINAS, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province and government of Quito; situate between two lakes, and on the shore of a river which enters the Marañon, at a small distance from its mouth.

VARIQUIRA, or VARIQUIRI, an island of the river Marañon, formed by two channels or arms of this river which run to enter the lake Arraba.

VARIQUIRA, a settlement in the same island.

VARIRIN, a river, called also De Palmera, in the province and *captainship* of Seara, and kingdom of Brazil. It rises from the mountains of the *w.* and enters the river Paravá. In the woods on its borders inhabit many barbarous Indians, who impede its navigation.

VARUTA, a settlement of the province and government of Venezuela in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; near the coast, nearly to the *s.* of the city of Caracas, to the district of which it belongs, between the settlements of Parure and Palle.

VAS, a hamlet of the province and *captainship* of Rio de Janeiro in Brazil, a very short distance to the *n.* of Villa de Principe. It was visited by Mawe, the mineralogist, in passing to Tejuco, in 1809.

VAS MARTIN, an island of the Atlantic Sea, between the coast of Brazil and the island of Cafreria. It was given this name by its discoverer; is desert and full of thick woods, and 180 leagues from the Brazil coast, to the *s. w.* of the island of Picos, in lat. 20° *s.*

VAS ANTON, another island in the province and *captainship* of Pernambuco, in the same kingdom, between the city of Olinda and the settlement of La Candelaria.

VAS ANTON, a port of the same province and kingdom.

[VASE, or Nase, River, Au, empties into the Mississippi from the *n.e.* three miles below the Great Rock, about 36 *n.w.* by *n.* of the mouth of the Ohio, and about the same distance *n.w.* of Fort Massac. It is navigable into the N.W. Territory about 60 miles including windings, through a rich country abounding in extensive natural meadows and numberless herds of buffaloe, deer, &c. It is about eight miles above Cape St. Antonio.]

VASICA, a river of the province and government of Florida, which runs *n.* and enters the sea between the settlement of San Marcos and the river Vilches.

[VASSALBOROUGH, a post-town of the district of Maine, in Lincoln County, on Kennebeck River, half way between Hallowell and Winslow, 144 miles *n.* by *e.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1771, and contained, in 1790, 1240 inhabitants.]

VATAPU, a settlement of the province and *captainship* of Pará in Brazil, on the coast, opposite the islands of Quariana.

VATEI, San Miguel del, a city of the province and government of Cumaná; founded by the governor Don Juan de Urpin, on the shore of the river Unare, but in so unhealthy a spot that all the animals used to die as soon as they were born. This, and the intolerable plague of ants with which it was infested, caused all the inhabitants to desert it, and betake themselves to other settlements.

VATIBAI, a small river of the province and government of Mainas, in the kingdom of Quito. It runs *e.* and then turning to *n.e.* enters the Napo, close to the settlement of La Soledad.

VAUCLIN, a settlement and parish of the French in the island of Martinique, on the *s.e.* coast, behind the point of its name.

Vauclin. This point is a cape or extremity of the *s.e.* coast, between the Cul de Sac Simon and the point of its name.

[VAUGHAN Township, in the east-riding of the county of York, Upper Canada, lies on the *w.* side of Yonge-street, in the rear of and to the *n.* of the township of York.]

[VAVAOO, one of the Friendly Islands in the S. Pacific Ocean. It is about two days sail from Hapaee.]

VAYA, an island of the river Orinoco, one of those which form the entrance of the Bay of Charaguanas with the point of Galera of the island of Trinidad.

VAYAL-ASONES, a barbarous and ferocious nation of Indians of Brazil, who dwell near the source of the river Paral to the *w.* of the province of Puerto Seguro. They are allies of the nations of the Lobos, Aimures, Paries, and Motayas, and have frequently invaded the Portuguese territories.

VAYES, a small island of the Lake of Unamarca, in the province and *corregimiento* of Peru.

VAYMORES, a barbarous, cruel, and cannibal nation of Indians of the kingdom of Brazil, who dwell in the woods and mountains of the *w.* part, between the provinces and *captainships* of Ilheos and Puerto Seguro. These Indians, united with some of other nations, have frequently destroyed the settlements and estates of the Portuguese, with whom they are at continual war.

VAZABARIS, a river of the province and *captainship* of Sergipe in Brazil. It rises near the coast, runs *s.s.e.* and enters the sea in the Bay of Sergipe.

VAZEUSE, a small river of the province and government of Louisiana, which runs *s.* between the rivers Grande and the Tortoise, and enters the Missouri.

[VEALTOWN, a village of New Jersey, near Baskenridge, about seven miles *s.w.* of Morristown.]

VEAU, Ance du, a settlement and parish of the French in the part which they possess in the island St. Domingo; situate on the *n.* coast, at one of the *w.* heads, between the great river Nipe and the Petit Trou.

VEAUX, Pasture des, a river of the province and colony of Virginia in the county of Albermarle.

Veaux. Some islands of the N. Sea, near the coast of Nova Scotia. They are four, small, and lying between those of Canards and Seal Bank.

VEGA, a settlement of the jurisdiction of Honda, and government of Mariquita in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a hot temperature, but very fertile and abounding in sugar canes, cotton, maize, *yucas*, and other productions of this climate. It has 400 housekeepers who live very uncomfortably, as being much infested with mosquitoes, snakes, and other reptiles. Twelve leagues *w.* of Santa Fé, and the same from Honda.

Vega, another settlement, with the dedicatory title of San Juan, a head settlement of the district, in the *alcaldía mayor* of Zelaya, of the province and bishopric of Mechoacán, and kingdom of Nueva España. It contains 415 families of In-

dians, 20 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and a convent of religious of San Francisco. Two leagues *n.* of its capital.

Vega, another, of the province and government of Antioquía in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada.

Vega, another, of the province and government of Mérida in the same kingdom; situate in the road which leads down to Maracaibo.

Vega, another settlement, called Real de la Vega, or Real de los Pozos, in the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of San Luis de Potosi, of the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It contains 15 families of Spaniards, 36 of *Mustees* and Mulattoes, and 32 of Indians, who used to trade in the metals of the mines which are in its district. But these mines having filled with water and become useless, the natives have addicted themselves to the cultivation of seeds; two leagues *s.* of its capital.

[Vega, or Concepcion de la Vega Real, a town in the *n. e.* part of the Island of St. Domingo, on the road from St. Domingo city to Daxabon. It is situate near the head of Yuna River, which empties into the Bay of Samana; 12 leagues *n. w.* by *w.* of Cotuy, and about 38 *e.* of Daxavon, or Daxabon. It stands on a beautiful plain among the mountains, on the very spot where Guarionex, *cacique* of the kingdom of Magua, had resided. In 1494, or 1495, the settlement of this town was begun by Columbus. Eight years after, it had become a city of importance, and sometimes during the year, there were 240,000 crowns in gold minted at this place. It was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1564.]

[Vega, St. Jago de la. See Spanish Town.]

VEGUETA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Huahura.

[VEJAS, or Morro de Vejas, a mount on the coast of Peru, about half a league from the Island of Lobos.]

VELA, Cape of, a point or promontory on the coast of the province and government of Santa Marta and Nuevo Reyno de Granada; on the confines of the province of the Rio del Hacha, to the *e.* It is lofty, and full of woods, in which dwell some barbarian Indians. It was discovered by Alonso de Ojeda, who gave it this name, in 1499. [It is nearly opposite to Cape Horn, in lat. 12° 13′ *n.* long. 72° 12′ *w.*

The harbour here and its environs are supposed to contain not less than 2000 inhabitants.]

Vela, a shoal of rock of the N. Sea, near that of Comboi to the *w.*

VELAS, Port of the, on the coast of the province and government of Costarica and kingdom of Guatemala, between the Cape of Santa Catalina and the Morro Hermoso.

VELEZ, a city of the province and *corregimiento* of Tunja in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; founded by Captain Martin Galiano, by order of Gonzalo Ximenez de Quesada, in the territory of the district of Ubazá, in 1539, near the river Sarabita, or Suarez, in a *llanura* at the foot of the mountains of Opon. It was the second town founded by the Spaniards in this kingdom, and was in a short time after transferred to the spot where it now stands, in the country of the Chipataes Indians. Its situation is inconvenient and disagreeable, being at the skirt of a mountain, where the soil is soft and muddy; and the streets are so swampy as to be at times impassable, which inconvenience is greatly increased by their not being paved. The temperature, though hot, is rendered moderate by the frequency of the tempests, which are attended with much thunder and lightning. The waters are bad and unwholesome, so that the inhabitants drink in common, *chicha*.

The surrounding district is extremely fertile in maize, of which it gathers two crops yearly; and not less abundant in grapes, plantains, pomegranates, *patillas*, *uyamas*, pines, *curas*, melons, figs, little pines, and many other fruits and woods of excellent quality; also in the woods are a multitude of birds. It has very fine and large breeds of mules and horses, with which it supplies the other provinces; and the quantity of sugar it makes is excessive, and not without many conserves and candies; these, with its honey and brandy, forming the principal branch of its commerce, and with which it supplies Santa Fé, and nearly the whole kingdom. It produces also very much cotton of the best quality, of which they make good woven stuffs, highly esteemed in all parts.

This city contains 2,500 inhabitants, a very handsome church, in which is venerated an image of Nuestra Señora de las Nieves, the patroness, the same being of exquisite sculpture; another effigy of Jesus of Nazareth, and a Christ crucified, which was found engraven upon stone with great beauty; two convents, one of the religious of San Francisco, and the other of San Juan de Dios, so poor, that neither of them can maintain two individuals. It is close to a volcano, and has excellent mines of very rich gold, but which are

not worked for want of people; [68 miles *n.* of Santa Fé, and 25 *n. w.* of Tunja, in lat. 5° 40′ *n.* and long. 74° 6′ *w.*]

[VELHAS Rio Das, a district of the province and *captainship* of Espiritu Santo in Brazil. It has for its capital the city of St. George, defended, as well as its port, by two forts. The cities belonging to this district are Cairu and Cumana. The bar before it is defended by a fort with four bastions; it contains more than 20,000 souls, and is extremely rich and fertile; its principal trade consists in grain, with which it supplies Bahia, and other parts of Brazil.]

Velhas Rio Das, or De Las Viejas, a river of the same province and *captainship*. It rises on the skirt of the *sierra* of Vermeja, runs *n.* and enters the grand river of Francisco.

Velhas, another river of the same kingdom, in the territory of the Guayazas Indians. It is small, runs *w.* and enters the Paranáiba.

[VELICALA, a town on and near the head of the peninsula of California, near the coast of the N. Pacific Ocean, and *n.* from Anclote Point. Lat. about 20° 35′ *n.* Long. 115° 50′ *w.*]

VENADO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Charcas, in Nueva España. It has a convent of the religious of St. Francis; and, although its territory is full of silver mines, yet as this metal is not of a superior quality the same are not worked; but the natives rather occupy themselves in agriculture, in breeding cattle, and particularly goats for slaughter; five leagues *s. w.* of its capital.

Venado, an island of the S. Sea, nearly close to the coast, in the province and government of Veragua and kingdom of Tierra Firme, at the back of the mountain of Puercos.

VENADOS, Punta de, a point on the coast of the province and government of Cartagena and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on a long strip of land formed by the mouths of the river Zinú, between the points Piedras and Mestizos.

VENADILLO, a settlement of the jurisdiction of the city of Tocaima and government of Mariquita in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Ambolaima. It is of a very hot temperature, and much infested with mosquitoes, *garapatas*, and snakes. It produces sugar-canes, maize, *yucas*, and plantains. Its name is derived from a tame stag, which the Indians had when it was conquered by the Spaniards. In its district is a gold mine, which preserves the same title, and which produced great riches when it was worked; fourteen leagues to *s. w.* of Santa Fé.

VENANGO, a settlement of the province of Pensylvania in the United States. [See Fort Franklin.]

VENBAQUI, a river of the province and government of Darien and kingdom of Tierra Firme. It rises in the mountains of the *n.* part, and runs into the sea in the great beach opposite the Mulata Isles.

VENETA, Sierras de, a *cordillera* of very lofty mountains in the province and government of Cartagena and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, which serve as limits between this jurisdiction and that of Darien, belonging to the kingdom of Tierra Firme.

VENEZUELA, a province and government of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, in S. America; bounded *e.* by the province of Cumana, *w.* by that of Santa Marta, *s. e.* by the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, the river Orinoco serving as limits to the *s.*, and the whole of its limits on the *n.* being washed by the ocean. It is 200 leagues long, from the Mountain of Unare to the Cape of la Vela, from *e.* to *w.*, and in width 120 leagues. It enjoys different temperatures, and has in its district inaccessible mountains and extremely craggy *sierras*, lofty lands, and fertile vallies and plains. It abounds in pastures, in which are very large breeds of cattle of every species, particularly neat cattle and goats; which have multiplied to such a degree in the jurisdictions of Maracaibo, Coro, Carora, and Tucuyo, that the inhabitants of the province have enriched themselves exceedingly in the commerce of hides and dressed leather. The horses are so good as to vie with the best of Andalucia or Chile, and the mules are in numbers sufficient to supply immense droves for the use of the whole province.

This province is watered by many rivers which fertilize it, and as it enjoys, in its vast extent, several degrees of temperature, the productions are also various, and it accordingly abounds in wheat, maize, rice, cotton, tobacco, and sugar, of which it makes exquisite conserves, *cacao* in great quantities, this being the principal source of its wealth, and of which the crop exceeds annually 130,000 bushels, growing in 61 vallies and estates; this article having been exported entirely on account of the Royal Company of Caracas, they having had the exclusive right of trade in the same, from their establishment in 1728, and until the right was redeemed by Charles III. in 1778; it also abounds in all kinds of fruits and pulse, as well European as those indigenous to America. The mountains yield precious and much esteemed sorts of wood, such as pomegranates, *gateados* of

different colours, *caobs*, *dividibes*, *guayacanes*, Brazil wood, *chacatanday*, most beautiful for the variety of its colours, which are similar to those of the *caray*, and the cedar, which is so common as to be used for the most ordinary works. Moreover there is scarcely one of these trees, but what has in its trunk a swarm of bees, yielding honey. It produces also *vaynillas*, more fragrant than those of Soconusco; and in the jurisdiction of the city of Carora wild cochineal, as fine as that of Misteca in Nueva España, and which, if cultivated as it is there, would yield immense profit. The zarzaparilla and indigo are here so common as to be thought rather incumbrances than things of value. In the woods are different kinds of animals, lions, bears, dantas, deer, *baquiras*, rabbits, and tigers, the fiercest of any in America; and it is observed, that these animals are more savage in proportion to the smallness of the spots on their skin. In the rivers are an infinite variety of fish, some common and others exquisite; and on the coast is found abundance of salt, of which all profit, not only from the facility of collecting it, but from its being of a very superior flavour. The fields are enlivened with birds, equally enchanting by their song as their beautiful plumage, and the fowl which are eaten are of exquisitely delicate flavour; and amongst these the most notable are the *guacharaca*, *paugi*, *uquira* or mountain hen, turtle dove, and partridge. It produces also simples of great estimation in medicine, such as *cana fistola*, tamarinds, china root, *tacamajaca*, an extraordinary remedy for the head ache, the balsam of Curora, and the oil which they call of Maria or of Cumaná, both this and the former being great antidotes for wounds.

It has tin mines in different parts, which were discovered by Don Alonzo de Oviedo, an inhabitant of Barquisimeto; and these were worked for a long time on account of the royal estates, and much metal were extracted from them and carried to Spain for the foundry of artillery. These mines were afterwards made over for 40,000 dollars to Don Francisco Marin, native of Caracas, but who abandoned them, applying the utensils employed in them to other purposes. This province had likewise some very rich gold mines, which are not now worked; either because, the principal veins being consumed, the profit does not requite the expense; or because the natives are inclined rather to the cultivation of *cacao*, whereby they become enriched with less hazard. Here are found crystals transparent, solid, and smooth, and a strata of so fine a blue as to vie with the ultramarine; woods of different colours for dyes; and lastly, it is to be observed, that there is in this province whatsoever can adduce to the comfort of life, without the necessity of application to any of the neighbouring provinces; and it is equally certain that, were the inhabitants capable of turning to the best advantage its great natural resources, it would be the best supplied and richest province in all America.

This country was discovered by Captain Olonzo de Ojeda, native of Cuenca, in 1490, and its conquest was agreed upon with the Emperor Charles V. by the Weltzers, German merchants, in 1526, and first undertaken by Ambrose Alfinger; he being followed by George Spira and Nicholas Federman, who gave the name of Venezuela to the settlements of the Indians which they found on the lake of Maracaibo, from their resemblance to the city of Venice; and this name was afterwards extended to the whole province. It was then inhabited by innumerable tribes of different nations, who, without acknowledging allegiance to any monarch, were in a state of vassalage to different *caciques*. But the changes of time and the continual withdrawing of the Indians, in the early periods, for the space of more than 20 years, to the Leeward Islands and to other parts, have so diminished their numbers, that in the 82 remaining settlements scarcely any thing more than the memory of their former greatness remains: add to this the mortality which happened in 1580, through the introduction of the small-pox by a Portuguese vessel, which came with negroes from the coast of Guinea. The capital is the city of Santiago de Leon de Caracas.

Catalogue of the cities, settlements, rivers, and nations of Indians of the province of Venezuela.

Cities.

Santiago de Leon de Caracas,
Santa Ana de Coro,
Nueva Zamora de Maracaibo,
Truxillo,
Tucuyo,
Nueva Segovia de Barquisimeto,
Nueva Valencia del Rey,
Portillo de Carora,
San Sebastian de los Reyes,
Guanaguanare.

Towns.

S. Carlos de Austria,
Pilar de Araure,
Puerto de la Guaira,
Calabozo,
San Carlos,
Cura,
San Fernando,
Hospino,
San Jayme,
Pao,
Perijá.

Settlements.
Acarigua,
Acurigua,
Acaboa,
Achaguas,
Agua Blanca,
Agua Culebras,
Ayamanes,
Alpargarton,
Altagracia de Puertos,
Altagracia de Orituco,
Altal, or Cerro Negro,
Altamira,
Antimano,
Paraguana,
Ancon,
San Antonio,
Los Angeles,
Aregue,
Aparicion,
Araguita,
Asserradero,
Atamaica,
Baruta,
Barbacoas de Tucuyo,
Barbacoas de San Sebastian,
Burburata,
Borojo,
Bocono de Guanare,
Bocare,
Boca de Tinaco,
Bombay,
Burrero,
Buria,
Carayaca,
Carvalleda,
Cata,
Cabria,
Cañizos,
Capadare,
Carorita,
Carrizal,
Carriagua,
Capatarida,
Casiqua,
Carache,
Caramacate,
Capamaparo,
Canaguan,
Cabrita,
Canoabo,
Cagua,
Calvario,
Camatagua,
Cara,
Caucagua,
Capaya,
Caruau,
Cerrito de Santa Rosa,
Cojo,
Cocuede,
Cocuizas,
Cocorote,
Cuyagua,
Cumarebo,
Cubiro,
Cunaviche,
Cua, or Marin,
Cupira,
Curiepe,
Chacao,
Chaguaramal,
Chaguaramai,
Charayave,
Chivacoa,
Choron,
Chuao,
San Diego de Caraccas,
San Diego de Valencia,
Duaca,
Escuque,
San Francisco de Cara,
Guaiguaza,
Guaibacoa,
Guarico,
Guanarito,
Gunare Viejo,
Guarda Tinajas,
Guacara,
Guayos,
Guama,
Guapo,
Guatire,
Guarenas,
Guigue,
Hueque,
Humucaro alto,
Humucaro baxo,
Hortiz,
Santa Ines,
Iguana,
Yaritagua,
Ipire,
Yare,
Jacuira,
Jajó,
San Jacinto,
Jobal,
San Joseph,
Jujure,
Payana,
San Lazaro,
Lagunillas,
Lezama,
Santa Lucía,
Macarao,
Maiquetia,
Macuito,
Mapubares,
Macuruca,
Mapiare,
Maraca,
Maria,
Mapon,
San Mateo,
Maracán,
Macaira,
Mamporal,
Marasma,
Mesa,
Misoa,
Mitare,
S. Miguel de Truxillo,
Moron,
Mopui,
Moporo,
Montalvan,
Naiguata,
San Nicolas,
Niquitao,
Ocumare of the coast,
Ocumare del Tuy,
Onoto,
Orachiche,
S. Rafael de Orituco,
Potanemo,
Paraguana,
Payara,
Parapara,
Panaquire,
Petare,
Pecaya,
Pedregal,
San Pedro and Santa Maria,
Piche,
Puerto Cabello,
Puertos de Altagracia,
Punta de Piedros,
Quara,
Quebrada,
Quibor,
Rio del Tucuyo,
Rio de Carora,
Rio Seco,
San Rafael de las Guasguas,
Sanara,
Sarare,
Sabana de Ocumare,
Siquisique,
Siquisai,
Sombrero,
Tarmas,
Taria,
Tacata,
Tacarigua,
Santa Teresa,
Tintini,
Tinacoa,
Timotes,
Tinaco,
Tinajillo,
Tiznados,
Tinajas,
Tomocoro,
Toztóz,
Tucupido,
Tucupio,
Turmero,
Turen,
Trinidad,
Valle de la Pasqua,
Vega,
Victoria,
Urama,
Zacarida,
Ziruma.

Nations of Indians.
Alcoholades,
Chingotos,
Coromonos,
Cuibas,
Cuicas,
Giraharas,
Guaxiros,

Peritoes,
Pocabuyes,
Quiriquires,
Zaparas.

Rivers.
Albarregas,
Astillero,
Blondo,
Borante,
Cama,
Catacumbo,
Culata,
Cruz,
Piedras,
Hacarigua,
Harinas,
Mitare,
Mototán,
Nequitao,
Oinare,
Pauraute,
Rubio,
San Pedro,
Sciba,
Socui,
Unare.

Promontories.
Blanquizales,
Carvalleda,
Coquibacoa,
Galera,
Macolla,
Pico,
Revelada,
Salinas,
San Joseph,
Vela.

Ports.
Guaira,
Puerto Seco,
Puerto Cabello,
Burburata.

Lakes.
Cayama,
Maracaibo,
Montes,
San Pedro.

Islands.
Oruba,
Aves,
Bonaire,
Curazao,
Palomas,
Isleos,
Monges,
Orchilla,
Tucuaque,
Vigia.

[The dreadful earthquake which happened in this province on Holy Thursday, April 19, 1810, whereby the greatest part of the city of Caracas was destroyed, with the annihilation of Vittoria, and with a great destruction at Puerto Caballo and at Leon, is in every body's recollection; it is our lamentable province to record the event. The loss of souls in that city has not been accurately ascertained, perhaps for political reasons; but it was, doubtlessly, considerable.

Mr. Depons tells us that the progress of Caracas has been materially retarded by the hostilities between Spain and England, which have subsisted with little intermission since 1796; but that, previous to such interruption, it was advancing rapidly in wealth and population. Mr. Depons reckons the number of inhabitants in Venezuela, in 1804, at 500,000; but, in 1787, they amounted, according to the Vigero Universal, t. 23, p. 109, to no more than 333,000.

The representation of the United States of Venezuela was established in July, 1811, in the proportion of one for every 20,000 souls. Taking, therefore, the representatives at 50, (it was, indeed, assumed at 100. See Section 111, Election of Senators, infra), it gives the population of those States, including the provinces of Margarita, Merida, Cumanà, Varinas, Barcelona, Truxillo, and Caracas, at 1,000,000 of souls.

At an average of four years, from 1799 to 1803, the quantity of *cacao* exported, from hence and from Maracaybo, amounted to 145,000 *fanegas*.

The legislature of Caracas, under the new regime in 1812, had passed two acts, the one enacting, that all foreigners without distinction who should introduce, into any ports of that State, specie, either in silver or gold, should be exempt from import duty; and should only pay 6 per cent export duty, on the amount of the produce purchased with the silver so imported, and 8 per cent on those purchases made with the gold; and that all individuals of the confederation should, in the first case, pay 4 per cent, and in the second 6 per cent; and the other enacting, that all persons, and particularly foreign merchants, should be allowed to import, into any of the ports of the state of the Caracas, 12,000 muskets, for which the importer of the first 4000 should receive, at the rate of 30 dollars for each musket; for the second 4000, at the rate of 25 dollars each; and for the last 4000, at the rate of 20 dollars each, the whole free from import duties, provided the said importation should take place within eight months from the date of publication; (May 13).

For accounts of the trade of the above province, see CARACAS.

Further Additional Matter respecting the Kingdom of Venezuela.

I. REVOLUTION.

1. *Introduction and Outline.*—2. *Grievances complained of by the Venezuelans, in their Manifesto.*—3. *Act of Independence, July* 8, 1811, *in consequence of Occurrences at Bayonne, April* 19, 1810.—4. *Articles comprehended in the Declaration of the Legislative Session, July* 1, 1811.—5. *Invitation to Settlers.*

II. FEDERAL CONSTITUTION FOR THE STATES OF VENEZUELA.

Preliminary.

Cap. 1. *Of Religion—in one section.*
2. *Of the Legislative Power—in seven sections.*]

[3. *Of the Executive Power—in five sections.*
4. *Of the Judicial Power—in two sections.*
5. *Of the Provinces—in four sections.*
6. *Revisal and Reform of the Constitution—in one section.*
7. *Sanction or Ratification of the Constitution—in one section.*
8. *Rights of Man, which are to be acknowledged and respected, throughout the whole extent of the State—in four sections.*
9. *Regulations and Dispositions of more general tenor—in one section.*
10. *Conclusion.*

(N. B. The whole of the said constitution is comprised under 228 articles.)

I. Revolution.

1. *Introduction and Outline.*—The revolution of Venezuela has proceeded with far more hasty steps, in all the horrors of anarchy and bloodshed, than that of any other part of the Spanish colonies. The denouement of the distressful scenes are still hidden from our eyes, and the winding-up of events will claim the pen of some future historian. To record what has already happened, as far as our information will allow, is our present intention. Whatever may have been the partial light thrown upon the subject, by the scanty dissertations of the latest writers, it is still no easy task to discriminate, with accuracy and proper feelings, the whole picture that has been represented to our imagination. A world in arms against its antient and constituted authorities, is an event novel in the revolution of ages. An effect so uniform is only to be looked for by a cause as universal. Some discussion on this point has been already offered under the article Mexico, and a sufficiently accurate consideration of it will be found under other articles of this Work; we shall therefore confine ourselves, for the present, to the local circumstances relating to the revolution of Venezuela.

There is, however, one most material question that occurs in treating this subject, which is, whether or not the Spanish settlements, at the time of the entry of the French into Spain, and of the dissolution of the monarchy, required redress and a reform of government; and next, whether they asked it, and were denied. The people were oppressed by the crown, and by monopolies; the commonalty and peasantry groaned under burdensome and unreasonable restrictions, destructive of all enterprise; the laws did not inflict punishment on the guilty, nor afford protection to the innocent; arbitrary acts were common; the natives were debarred from a fair participation in offices of trust and emolument; a system of government prevailed, disgraceful to the statute books of Spain and the Indies, opposed to the common rights of mankind, and hostile to the dictates of truth and reason; the Spanish Americans, in short, could be considered in no other state than in that of feudal vassalage to Spain. The Viceroys held in their own hands the executive, legislative, and military powers; and, as a proof how little the Spanish Americans shared in the offices of distinction in their own country, we find by the Censor Extraordinario, Cadiz, January 26, 1812, the following is a statement of persons who have been in command there since its settlement:

	Europeans.	Americans.
Archbishops and Bishops	702	278
Viceroys	166	4
Captains-general and Presidents	588	14
	1456	296

That repeated efforts were made for a reform of government, and to obtain the right of legislating locally for themselves in their own concerns, appears to be proved, not only by the applications of the respective American municipalities and juntas, but also by the journals of the Cortes and their debates. The claims of the Americans were defined and laid before the Spanish government, in 11 propositions, on the 16th November, 1810; they were repeated on the 31st December, and again on the 1st of August, 1811, in the well known *Representacion de la Deputacion Americana á las Cortes de España*, but were never attended to. A torpor seemed to have succeeded to distress, and to the violent convulsions of a calamitous revolution, which appeared to render the government deaf to the just cries and appeals of a well deserving moiety of the nation: there was wanting a healing and cementing principle of benevolence; nor is there, up to the present day, a proper measure of redress or conciliation upon record.

To the impartial mind, and to him who has carefully examined both sides of the question, it will be easily suggested, that the ideas which circulated in the settlements of the hopeless state of Spain, at the time the French entered Andalucia; to which was added, the dread of falling into the hands of the same usurpers, were the chief]

[causes of the Americans resolving no longer to trust to the administration of their European governors, conceiving their own affairs more secure when confided to their own assemblies or juntas, whom they created after the manner of the provinces of Spain. That they had cause to suspect the whole of the viceroys and governors, has been proved by posterior events; they all proclaimed the doctrine, that America ought to share the same fate as the Peninsula, and that when the one was conquered, the other was to submit; in short, the commanders abroad were prepared for this alternative, they had been previously chosen by the Prince of Peace, and were ready to be moulded to the views on which he had acted. It was, therefore, unnatural and unreasonable, after their own dear-bought experience, for these distant colonies to have confidence in such chiefs; nor was it prudent to leave themselves to the mercy of men, who had no other interest in the country than to prolong the continuation of their command, which had been secured to them by the French, and their Spanish partizans.

The people of Venezuela were, in fact, resolved to administer their own concerns, and they considered themselves justified in declaiming against any dependence on governors, who, they argued, were ready to deliver them up to the French, in pursuance of the orders of Joseph Napoleon. They made use of that right which the most enlightened Spaniards have acknowledged to exist, and Don Gaspar Jovellanos, in the famous opinion which he laid before the Central Junta, October 7, 1808, expressly says, "that when a people discovers the imminent danger of the society of which it is member, and knows that the administrators of the authority, who ought to govern and defend it, are suborned and enslaved, it naturally enters into the necessity of defending itself, and of consequence acquires an extraordinary and legitimate right of insurrection." It would be unfair to argue that these were maxims only formed for the Spaniards of Europe, and that they did not extend to the Americans; and thus far the revolutionists would appear to enjoy the good wishes of every man, who can duly appreciate the blessings of rational and natural emancipation.

But the road to innovation is always dangerous, and those who follow it seldom arrive at the direct object of their pursuit. The insurgents of Caracas (for it was in this city that the revolutionists made their first and firmest stand), soon became divided into two parties; those who wished to acknowledge Ferdinand VII. for their king, and to govern themselves by the Spanish laws, under the auspices of a national congress, and those who, actuated by a decided hatred of the Spaniards, and the exaggerated ideas of liberty which they had acquired from the French republicans, were determined to make Venezuela an independent state, a truly democratic republic. The moderate party was supported at first by public opinion, which, as we have already observed, was favourable to the mother-country; but the ill-judged attempts of the Spanish commissioner, at Puerto Rico, to overthrow the revolutionary government, and to support the refractory towns of Coro and Maracaybo against the rest of the province, had the worst possible consequences. The insurgents, who were without military leaders, had been defeated by those of Coro, when General Miranda, who had hastened to Caracas on hearing of the [revolution, arrived at La Guaira. His talents and ambition were so much dreaded by the majority of the junta, that orders had been issued to prevent his landing in his native country; but circumstances were now changed, and his partizans insinuated that he was the only person under whose guidance they could look for victory. Miranda behaved at first with great moderation, and waited until the meeting of the general congress, to which he contrived to get himself elected by a rather insignificant village of the province. The majority proved to be composed of republicans; and few sittings had taken place when they declared themselves absolutely independent, and constituted a government which they called *The United Provinces of Venezuela.* All their proceedings from that period are tinged with what might be called a jacobinical hue. A declaration of the *Rights of Man* was issued as the basis of the new political fabric, and the people were called on to be judges of the conduct of their government, while the gaols were crowded with persons merely suspected of being disaffected: nor was this all, for as a system of coercion naturally, though insensibly, leads to the most unrefrained exhibition of power, it was not long before the heads of many of the citizens were to be seen sticking upon poles at the gates of the city, as examples of the punishment that would await all such as dared to shew themselves inimical to the insurgent party. Scarcely had those horrors began to subside, and the government to be more settled after the subjugation of the refractory town of Valencia, by the troops of Miranda, when, on April 19, 1810, a most dreadful earthquake reduced the]

the capital to ruins. La Guaira met with the same fate. But the Congress, after the publication of a constitution in which they very nearly copied that of the United States, had, fortunately for themselves, issued a decree for changing their residence to Valencia, which they had appointed to be the federal town; and thus it was that they escaped the calamity which destroyed so many thousands of their fellow citizens. But the Congress, though they might congratulate themselves on their personal safety, had much to apprehend on account of their cause. The extraordinary catastrophe did not fail to have a marked effect upon the people of S. America; they immediately believed it to be a visible sign of the wrath of heaven, inflicted upon them for the dereliction of their allegiance; but it served to give only a momentary check to the progress of the system of independence.

Montverde, the Spanish general, did not fail to take every advantage of the distresses and fears of the Patriots on this melancholy occasion, and many of the latter began to enter into correspondence with the government of Puerto Rico, and also with the royal troops at Coro, commanded by Montverde in person. "At this crisis (says the N. York Gazette) the wreck of the patriot army assembled, and the command was given to the Marquis Del Toro, who resigned his commission. The command was then delegated to General Miranda, and the army reinforced with men and arms. About this time Congress evacuated, and the royal army took possession of Valencia.

"On the 6th July, Puerto Cavallo was taken by surprise. The loss of this important sea-port afforded a pretext to Miranda for surrendering, who entered into an armistice, which led to a private capitulation on the part of Miranda. The terms of Miranda's surrender were only known to one or two of his particular friends.

"The patriots of Caracas, it is said, were dissatisfied with his conduct. Every patriot remained persuaded to the last moment that Miranda had taken care of their safety; but, on finding the result, they fled to La Guaira, to embark on board the vessels detained by Miranda's embargo, which was expected to be repealed; but on the capitulation being concluded, it was continued in the name of General Montverde.

"General Miranda arrived at La Guaira the 30th July, and ordered the embargo to be raised, intending immediately to embark on board an English schooner, for Curaçoa; but the commandant refused to do so, made him a prisoner, and confined him in a dungeon, upbraiding him as a betrayer; and in this exigence declaring himself for Montverde."

Whether this declaration were actually made, we are not enabled to say, but we find Miranda shortly afterwards carried to Cadiz, as it was asserted by some, to undergo his trial; and by others, to give information of the best means of subjecting the colonies to the mother country. He was afterwards taken back to America, where he was kept in confinement, but treated with leniency in proportion as the success of the patriots had become more or less evident.

The affairs of the latter began, shortly after the above misfortunes, to brighten under another leader, by name Bolivar. Early in the year 1813, the town of La Guiara, together with the public property, to the value of 200,000 dollars, was retaken by the insurgents; and on the 2d September, Bolivar took possession of Valencia, obliging Montverde to fly to Puerto Cabello. The practice of putting to death all the Europeans arriving at Venezuela now became general, and the public documents began to be signed "The Third of Independence, and first of War without Quarter!" Indeed, during the whole of the year 1813 and later, the result of the engagements between Bolivar and Montverde, were in favour of the former. It would be tedious, and our documents are not sufficiently copious, to allow us to enter into a regular detail of the minute transactions that have taken place during that period; but, according to late accounts, we find that Montverde, in consequence of a wound he had received, had resigned the command of the troops in Venezuela, *pro tempore*, to Colonel Solomon, and that the king's cause had become daily more and more unpopular. This success was not lasting; for shortly afterwards the insurgent army, of 1,500 men, were defeated near Vittoria, by the royalists, and 500 of the independents deserted their standard, and fled to the royalists, when they were killed.

At this time an embargo had existed at La Guaira. So rigidly was it enforced by the independents, that the sails and rudders of all the vessels had been taken ashore, to prevent the possibility of any of them getting to sea. The cruelties with which the war is carried on is nearly unparalleled in history; and we almost fear to state them on our naked assertion. The following extract of a letter from Curaçoa, Novem-

[ber 4, 1814, affords, we fear, too true a picture of present events.

"I have just come over from the Main, and am sorry to say, that the fine province of Venezuela seems fast verging to a state like that of St. Domingo. In the valley of Santa Lucia and Santa Theresa, 29 whites have been put to death, mostly women and children, in the name of Ferdinand VII. whilst to windward similar atrocities have been perpetrated for 'La Patria.' In La Guaira 14 Spaniards were shot on the most frivolous and improbable pretences, without a murmur; but when some black soldiers were to be flogged, their comrades interfered and rescued them; and this dangerous breach of discipline passed unpunished. Will it be believed that women have taken an active part in the horrible proceedings carried on, and have scourged the ladies of the royalist party in the most cruel and indecent manner? Every thing, in short, announces an approaching struggle, wherein every species of cruelty will be exercised, and the different shades of colour in the skin will supersede the necessity of all other external distinctions. The negro officers have already the finest horses, mules, and arms, and speak with a freedom which even a white creole dare not use without running the risk of becoming the inhabitant of a jail. Before quitting La Guaira I was witness to a scene which made a deep impression on my mind, and indeed which never whilst I live can be erased from it. The Spaniards had so long and so confidently talked of reinforcements arriving from Cadiz, that they were no longer credited, and the matter began to be treated as a jest by the patriots. At length, on the 12th September, a squadron, consisting of a frigate and six transports, full of troops, made its appearance in the offing. Immediately all was in motion, and every thing was prepared to deceive them, should they be ignorant of the real state of affairs, or to give them a warm reception, should they attempt to force a landing. It was not, however, till noon the next day that the ships drew near, and the headmost were already within the reach of the batteries, when they suddenly stood off the land and lay to. It was then evident that they were suspicious that all was not right, although the royal standard was displayed on the fort above the town. After a short time a boat was seen approaching the shore, and measures were immediately taken to deceive those who were in her; the tri-coloured was replaced by the red cockade; the picture of Ferdinand was again hung up at Government House; the populace were instructed to hail their approach by loud acclamations; and to crown all, the former commandant of the town, Colonel Marmal, was taken out of his dungeon, and threatened with instant death unless he turned traitor, and consented still to act the part of commandant for the King. The plan was well laid, and succeeded at first beyond all expectation. After various parleys, the second in command, with a guard of 10 or 12 men, landed with all the dispatches and letters, and directly afterwards the frigate and all the transports came to anchor directly under the batteries. No one now dreamed that it was possible to escape, and our only concern was what could be done with so many prisoners. This, however, gave the patriots little concern, as they told me they supposed it would be easy to get them landed in small parties, and then disposed of by massacreing the whole. My feelings were now wound up to the highest pitch of anxiety. The consummate ignorance of the artillery men saved the lives of perhaps of 2,000 men. Ribas, mistrusting the answer that was sent to one of his messengers to the frigate, ordered the firing to commence, as it did immediately; 60 pieces of heavy artillery playing on the frigate alone. She instantly cut her cables, and stood off followed by all her convoy, yet the breeze was so light, that it can be only attributed to the ignorance of the gunners that every vessel was not sunk. Upwards of an hour and a quarter elapsed, during all which time a furious cannonade was kept up without the frigate deigning to return a single shot. What is singular, not a spar was seen from the shore to be carried away, nor was a single English schooner touched by their ill-directed shot. Yet some damage must have been done, as the frigate, when out of gunshot, was seen to heel, and have carpenters busy in plugging holes in her side. The whole loss, I have since been informed, was about 40 men."

Such being the present, unsettled, and precarious state of affairs in these regions, we shall not indulge ourselves in speculation on their final results, but hasten to record, for future ages, such documents as were issued by the insurgents, either in exculpation of their proceedings, or in testimony of the incentives to insurrection, alleged by themselves to have been experienced from the year 1807, up to their absolute declaration of independence.

Of these important documents, the first we have to record is the famous manifesto of July 30,]

[1811, of which we shall give a literal and complete translation; since, although there be unquestionably objections to the severe party spirit with which it was indited, any mutilation of it would, in point of authenticity, through which it bears its peculiar claim to our preferment, render it useless and unsatisfactory.

N. B. The other documents will be given, as by the Index, at the head of the new matter comprehended in this article.

2. *Grievances complained of by the Venezuelans, in their Manifesto.*

'MANIFESTO *made to the World by the Confederation of Venezuela, in South America, of the reasons on which she has founded her absolute Independence of Spain, and of every other Foreign Power. Done and ordered to be published by the General Congress of the United States.*—Nunc quid sit agendum considerate.'

'Spanish America, condemned for more than three centuries, to have no other existence than to serve to increase the political preponderance of Spain, without the least influence or participation in her greatness; would eventually have arrived by the order of the events, in which she has no other part than sufferance, to be the sure sacrifice and victim of that same disorder, corruption, and conquest, which have disorganized the nation that first conquered her; if the instinct of self-security had not dictated to the Americans, that the moment of acting had arrived, and that it was time to reap the fruits of 300 years of inaction and patience.

'If the discovery of the new world was one of the most interesting occurrences to the human race, no less so will be the regeneration of this same world, degraded from that period by oppression and servitude. America, raising herself from the dust, and freed of her chains, yet without passing through the political gradations of other nations, will, in her turn, triumph over the whole world, without inundating it in blood, without enslaving or brutifying it. A revolution the most useful to the human race, will be that of America, when constituted and governed by her own self, she shall open her arms to receive the people of Europe; those who are trampled upon by policy, fleeing from the ills of war, and persecuted by the fury of the passions. In search of peace and tranquillity, the inhabitants of the other hemisphere will then cross the ocean, not with the perfidy of the heroes of the 16th century; but, as friends, and not as tyrants; as men in need, not as lords; not to destroy, but to build; not as tigers, but as men, who horror-struck with our former misfortunes, and self-taught by their own, will not convert their reason into a malignant spirit, nor wish that our annals be again those of blood and wretchedness. Then shall navigation, geography, astronomy, industry, and trade, perfected by the discovery of America, though ruinous to her, be converted into so many means to accelerate, consolidate, and perfect the felicity of both worlds.

'This is not a flattering dream but an homage, made by reason to providence. It was written in her ineffable designs, that one-half of the human race should not groan under the tyranny of the other, nor could it be supposed that the great fiat of the world's dissolution could arrive before one part of its creatures had enjoyed all their inherent rights. Every thing has been long preparing for this epoch of felicity and consolation. In Europe, the shock and fermentation of opinions, the inversion and contempt of the laws, the profanation of the bonds that hold together states, the luxury of courts, the sterility of the fields, the cessation of industry, the triumph of vice, and the oppression of virtue; whilst in America, the increase of population, of foreign wants dependant on her, the development of agriculture in a new and vigorous soil, the germ of industry under a beneficent clime, the elements of science under a privileged organization, the means of a rich and prosperous trade, and the robustness of a political adelescence, all, all accelerated the progress of evil in one world, and that of good in the other.

'Such was the advantageous alternative, that enslaved America presented on the other side the ocean, to her mistress Spain, when cast down by the weight of every evil, and undermined by every destructive principle of society, she called upon her to ease her of her chains, that she might fly to her succour. Unfortunately prejudice triumphed; the genius of evil and of disorder seized on the governments; goaded pride usurped the seat of cool prudence, ambition triumphed over liberality, and substituting deceit and perfidy for generosity and good faith, they turned against us those very arms which we ourselves used at the time, when impelled by our fidelity and plain dealing, we taught Spain herself the way of resisting her enemies, under the banners of a presumptive king, unfit to reign, and without other titles than the generous compassion of the people, and his own misfortunes.]

[‘ Venezuela was the first to pledge to Spain, the generous aid which she considered as a necessary homage: Venezuela was the first in her affliction, to pour the consoling balm of friendship and fraternity into her wounds: Venezuela was the first to know the disorders that threatened the destruction of Spain: she was the first to provide for her own safety, without breaking the bonds that held her to the mother country: the first to perceive the effects of her ambitious ingratitude: she was the first on whom war was made by her brethren: and she is the first to recover her independence and civil dignity in the new world. In order to justify this measure of necessity and justice, she considers it a duty incumbent on her, to present to the universe, the reasons which have urged her to the same, that her honour and principles may not be doubted or endangered, when she comes to fill the high rank which providence restores to her.

‘ All those who are aware of our resolution, likewise know what has been our fate previous to the late inversion of things, which alone dissolved our engagements with Spain, even granted that these were legal and equitable. It were superfluous to present afresh to impartial Europe, the misfortunes and vexations she herself has so often lamented, at a time that we ourselves were not allowed to do so; neither is it necessary to aver the injustice of our dependance and degradation, when every nation has viewed as an insult to political equity, that Spain, unpeopled, corrupted, and sunk in a state of inaction and sloth by a despotic government, should have exclusively usurped from the industry and activity of the rest of the continent, the precious and incalculable resources of a world, constituted in the fief and monoply of a small portion of the other.

The interest of Europe cannot clash with the liberty of a quarter of the globe, that now shews itself to the felicity of the other three; yet a mere Peninsula is found to oppose the interests of its government to those of its nation, in order to raise the old hemisphere against the new one, since the impossibility of oppressing it any longer is now discovered. In opposition to these endeavours, more fatal to our tranquillity than to our prosperity, it is, that we are about to display the causes which operated on our conduct, from the 15th July, 1808, and the acts that have wrested from us the resolutions of the 19th April, 1810, and of the 5th July, 1811; which three epochs will form the first period of the glories of regenerated Venezuela, when the impartial pen of history shall record the first lines of the political existence of S. America.

‘ Testified as were in our minifests and public papers, almost all the reasons that influenced our resolution as well as our designs; and all the just and decorous means which we have employed to realize them: it might be supposed, that the exact and impartial comparison of our conduct with that of the governments of Spain, in these latter times, would of itself suffice to justify not only our moderation, not only our measures of security, not only our independence, but even also the declaration of an irreconcilable enmity against those who directly or indirectly have contributed to the unnatural system now adopted against us. Nothing in truth should we have to do if good faith had been the spring of action, used by the party of oppression against liberty; but as the last analysis of our misfortunes, we cannot extricate ourselves from the condition of slaves, without being branded with the calumny of being ingrates, rebels, and unthankful. Let those therefore listen and judge us, who have no part in our misfortunes, and who are now desirous of having none in our disputes, in order not to augment the prejudices of our enemies; and let them not lose sight of the solemn act of our just, necessary, and modest emancipation.

‘ Caracas learnt the scandalous scenes that passed in El Escurial and Aranjuez, at a time that she already perceived what were her rights, and the state in which these were placed by those great occurrences; but the habit of obedience on the one hand, the apathy produced by despotism on the other; and, in short, fidelity and good faith were at the moment superior to every combination: and after the dispatches of Murat, the kingly substitute to Joseph Napoleon, had reached the capital, the authorities did not even waver respecting their reception, it was not possible for the people to think of any thing else than of being faithful, consistent, and generous, without foreseeing the ills to which this noble and gallant conduct would expose them. Without any other view than that of honour, Venezuela refused to follow the opinion of the leading men of Spain, some of whom in support of the orders of the French Regent of the kingdom, exacted from us allegiance to the new king: others declaring and publishing, that Spain had received a new existence since the abandonment of her authorities, since the cessions of]

[the Bourbons, and the introduction of the new dynasty; that they had recovered their absolute independence and liberty, and that they offered this example to the Americans, that they might recover the same rights there proclaimed; but as soon as the first step we had taken for our security, had convinced the Central Junta that there was in us something more than habits and prejudices, they began to vary the language of liberality and sincerity; they perfidiously adopted the talisman of Ferdinand, at first invented by good faith; they suppressed, but with cunning and sweetness, the plain and legal project of Caracas in 1808 to form a junta, and to imitate the representative conduct of the governments of Spain, and they began to set on foot a new species of despotism, under the factitious name of a king, acknowledged only from a principle of generosity, and destined to effect our ill and disaster, by those who had usurped the sovereign power.

'Fresh governors and judges, initiated in the new system projected against America, decided to sustain it at our expense, and provided with instructions for even the last political change that might occur in the other hemisphere, were the consequences resulting from the surprise, which our unheard-of and unexpected generosity caused to the Central Junta. Ambiguity, artifice, and disorder, were all the springs set in motion by this tottering and short-lived administration: as they saw their empire exposed, it was evident they wished to gain in one day, what had enriched their ancestors in many years; and as their authority was backed by that of their parasites, all their endeavours were directed to uphold each other, under the shadow of our illusion and good faith. No statute contrary to these plans was valid and effective, and every measure that favoured the new order of political freemasonry, was to have the force of law, however opposed to the principles of justice and equity. After the declaration of the Captain-general Emparan, made to the *Audiencia*, that in Caracas there was no other law nor will but his own; and this fully manifested in several arbitrary acts and excesses, such as placing on the seat of the *oidor*, the fiscal in civil and criminal cases; intercepting and opening the dispatches sent to the Central Junta, by Don Pedro Gonsales Ortega; sending out of those provinces this same functionary, as well as Captain Don Francisco Rodriguez, and the assessor of the board of trade, Don Miguel Jozé Sanz, all embarked for Cadiz and Puerto Rico; as well as condemning to the labour of the public works, without either form or appearance of trial, a considerable multitude of good men, snatched from their homes under the pretence of vagrants; revoking and suspending the resolutions of the *Audiencia*, when not conformable to his caprice and absolute will: after naming a recorder without the consent of the municipal body, creating and causing the assessor to be received without title or authority, after supporting his ignorance and pride to the utmost lengths: after many scandalous disputes between the *Audiencia* and the municipal body, and after all the law characters being reconciled to these despots, in order that they might be more secure and inexpugnable against us, it was agreed to organize and carry into effect, under the shadow of fallacy, the projects of espionage and ambiguity.

'Of all this there remains authentic testimony in our archives; notwithstanding the vigilance with which these were examined by the friends of the late authorities, there exists in Cumaná an order of the Spanish government to excite discord amongst the nobles and relations of the American families. There are besides, many written and well-known documents of corruption, gambling and libertinism, promoted by Guevara, to demoralize the country; and no one can ever forget the collusions and subornings publicly used by the *oidores*, and proved in the place of their residence.

'Under these auspices the defeats and misfortunes of the Spanish armies were concealed; pompous and imaginary triumphs over the French, in the Peninsula and on the Danube, were forged and announced; they caused the streets to be illuminated; gunpowder was wasted; the bells chimed; and religion was prostituted by Te Deums, and acts of thanks being sung, as if to insult Providence in the perpetuity of our evils. In order to leave us no time to analize our own fate, or discover the snares laid for us, conspiracies were invented, parties and factions were imagined, every one was calumniated who did not consent to be initiated in the mysteries of perfidy; fleets and emissaries from the French were figured, as being in our seas and amongst us; our relations with the neighbouring colonies were circumscribed and restricted; our trade was newly fettered; and the whole, to the end of keeping us in a state of continual agitation, that we might not fix our attention on our real interests.

'Our forbearance once alarmed, and our vigilance awakened, we began to lose confidence in]

[the governments of Spain and their agents; through the veil of their intrigues and machinations, we discovered the horrid futurity that threatened us: the genius of truth, raised above the dense atmosphere of oppression and calumny, pointed out to us with the finger of impartiality, the true fate of Spain, the disorders of her government, the energy of her inhabitants, the formidable power of her enemies, and the groundless hopes of her salvation. Shut up in our own houses, surrounded by spies, threatened by infamy and banishment, scarcely were we able to bewail our own situation, or to do more than secretly to complain against our vigilant and cunning enemies. The consonance of our blended sighs, exhaled in the moments of bitterness and oppression, at length gave uniformity to our sentiments, and united our opinions. Shut up within the walls of our own houses, and debarred from all communication with our fellow-citizens, scarcely was there one individual of Caracas, who did not think, that the moment of being for ever free had arrived, or else that, of irrevocably sanctioning a new and horrid slavery.

'Every one began to discover the nullity of the acts of Bayonne, the invalidity of the rights of Ferdinand, and of all the Bourbons who were parties to the said stipulations; the ignominy with which they had delivered up as slaves, those, who had placed them on the throne, in opposition to the pretensions of the house of Austria; the connivance of the intrusive mandataries of Spain, to the plans of the new dynasty; the fate that these same plans prepared for America, and the necessity of taking some resolve, that might shield the new world from the calamities that were about to result from its relations with the old one. All saw their treasures buried in the unfathomable abyss of the disorders of the Peninsula, they wept for the blood of Americans spilt in the same struggle with that of the enemies of America; in order to sustain the slavery of their own country, notwithstanding the vigilance of their tyrants, they saw into the interior of Spain herself, where they beheld nothing but disorder, corruption, factions, defeats, misfortunes, treacheries, dispersed armies, whole provinces in the power of the enemy, the ready phalanxes of the latter, and at the head of all, a weak and tumultuary government, formed out of such rare elements.

'Such was the general and uniform impression noticed on the faces of all the people of Venezuela by the agents of oppression, sent out to support, at every hazard, the infamous cause of their constituents; every word produced a proscription, every discourse cost banishment to its author, and every effort or attempt to do the same in America, as had been done in Spain, if it did not cause the blood of Americans to flow, it was at least sufficient for the ruin, infamy, and desolation of many families, as may be seen by the act of proscription of several officers of distinction, and citizens of rank and probity, decreed March 20, 1810, by Emparan. Such a wrong calculation could not fail to multiply the convulsions, to augment, by means of them, the popular re-action, to prepare the combustible, and dispose it in such a manner, that with the least spark it would create a blaze, that would consume and even efface every vestige of so hard and melancholy a condition. Spain, needy and desolate, her fate dependent on the generosity of America, and almost in the act of being blotted out from the list of nations, appeared as if transported back to the 16th and 17th ages, she again began to conquer America, with arms more terrible than iron or lead; every day gave rise to a new proof of the fate that awaited us; such a one as would place us in the sad alternative of being sold to a foreign power, or obliged for ever to groan under a fresh and irrevocable servitude; whilst we alone were expectant on the happy moment, that might give impulse to our opinion, and unite our strength to express and to sustain it.

'Amidst the sighs and imprecations of general exasperation, the irruption of the French into Andalucia, the dissolution of the Central Junta, brought about by the effects of public execration, and the abortive institution of another Protean government, under the name of Regency, reached our ears. This was announced under ideas more liberal, and on perceiving the efforts of the Americans to avail themselves of the vices and nullities of so rare a government, they endeavoured to strengthen the illusion by brilliant promises, by theories barren of reform, and by announcing to us that our fate was no longer in the hands of viceroys, ministers, or governors; at the same time, that all these agents received the most strict orders to watch over our conduct, over our opinions, and not to suffer these to exceed the limits, traced by the eloquence that gilded over the chains, prepared in the captious and cunning letter of emancipation.

'At any other period whatever this would have sufficed to deceive the Americans; but the Junta of Seville, as well as the Central one, had already done too much in order to take the ban-]

[dage from our eyes; and what was then combined, meditated, and polished, to subject us again with phrases and hyperboles, only served to redouble our vigilance, to collect our opinions, and to form a firm and unshaken resolution to perish, rather than to remain any longer the victims of cabal and perfidy. The eve of that day, on which religion celebrates the most august mystery of the redemption of the human race, was that designated by Providence to be the commencement of the political redemption of America. On Holy Thursday, April 19, 1810, it was, that the Colossus of despotism was cast down in Venezuela, the empire of the laws proclaimed, and the tyrants expelled, with all the felicity, moderation, and tranquillity, that they themselves have confessed; so much so, as even to have filled with admiration and friendship for us, the rest of the impartial world.

'Who but would have thought that a nation recovering its rights, and freeing itself from its oppressors, in its blind fury, would have broken down every barrier that might place it directly or indirectly within the reach of the influence of those very governments, that had hitherto sustained its misfortunes and oppression. Venezuela, faithful to her promises, does no more than insure her own security in order to comply with them; and if with one strong and generous hand, she deposed the agents of her misery and her slavery, with the other, she placed the name of Ferdinand VII. at the head of her new government, swore to maintain his rights, promised to acknowledge the unity and integrity of the Spanish nation, opened her arms to her European brethren, offered them an asylum in their misfortunes and calamities, equally hated the enemies of the Spanish name, sought the generous alliance of England, and prepared to take part in the felicity or misfortune of the nation from whom she could and ought to have eternally separated.

'But it was not this that the Regency exacted from us. When the latter declared us free in the theory of their plans, they subjected us in practice to a small and insignificant representation, believing that those to whom nothing was due, would be content to receive whatever was granted to them by their masters. Under a calculation so liberal, the Regency was desirous of keeping up our illusion, to pay us with words, promises, and inscriptions for our long slavery, and for the blood and treasure we had expended in Spain. Fully were we aware how little we had to expect from the policy and the intrusive agents of Ferdinand; we were not ignorant that if we were not to be dependent on viceroys, ministers, and governors, with greater reason we could not be subject either to a king, a captive and without the rights of authority, nor to a government null and illegitimate, nor to a nation incapable of holding sway over another, nor to a peninsular corner of Europe, nearly wholly occupied by a foreign force. Nevertheless, desirous of effecting our own freedom, by the means of generosity, moderation, and civism, we acknowledged the imaginary rights of the son of Maria Louisa, we respected the misfortunes of the nation, and giving official notice to the same Regency we disowned, we offered not to separate from Spain as long as she maintained a legal government, established by the will of the nation, and in which America had that part given to her, required by justice, necessity, and the political importance of her territory.

'If the 300 years of our former servitude have not sufficed to authorize our emancipation, there would be sufficient cause in the conduct of the governments, which arrogated to themselves the sovereignty of a conquered nation, which never could have any property in America, declared an integral part of the same, whilst they attempted again to involve it in conquest. If the governors of Spain had been paid by her enemies, they could not have done more against the felicity of the nation, bound in its close union and good correspondence with America. With the greatest contempt of our importance, and of the justice of our claims, when they could not deny us the appearance of a representation, they subjected it to the despotic influence of their agents over the municipalities to whom the election was committed; and whilst in Spain, at the same time that they allowed even for the provinces in possession of the French, as well as the Canaries and Balearic islands, a representative for each 50,000 souls, freely elected by the people; in America, scarcely a 1,000,000 sufficed to have the right of one representative, named by the Viceroy or Captain-general, under the signature of the municipality.

'At the same time that we, strong in the testimony of our own justice, and the moderation of our proceedings, hoped, that if the reasons we alleged to the Regency to convince them of the necessity of our resolution did not triumph; at least, that the generous dispositions with which we offered not to become the enemy of our oppressed and unfortunate brethren would be successful, dispositions which the new government of Caracas was desirous should not be limited to]

[barren phrases; and the imprejudiced and impartial world will know, that Venezuela has passed all that time, which intervened between April 19, 1810, to July 5, 1811, in a bitter and painful alternative of acts of ingratitude, insults, and hostilities on the part of Spain, and of generosity, moderation, and forbearance on ours. This period is the most interesting of the history of our revolution, so much so, that its events present a contrast so favourable to our cause, that it cannot have failed to gain over for us the impartial judgment of those nations, that have no interest to disparage our efforts.

'Previous to the result of our political transformation, every day we received fresh motives, sufficiently strong, for each to have caused us to do what we have done, after three ages of misery and degradation. In every vessel that arrived from Spain, new agents came out to strengthen with fresh instructions, those who sustained the cause of ambition and perfidy. For the very same purpose, refusal was sent out for the officers and other Europeans to return to Spain, notwithstanding they asked it to fight against the French; fresh orders were issued, April 30, 1810, for the schools to be closed, to the end that, under the pretence of attending only to the war, both Spain and America might be sunk deeper into a state of ignorance, it was ordained that rights and premiums should not be heard of, and that nothing was to be done, but sending to Spain money, American men, provisions, colonial productions, submission, and obedience.

'The public prints were filled with nothing but triumphs, victories, donations, and acknowledgments, wrested by despotism from the people, who were not yet informed of our resolution; and, under the most severe threats of punishment, a political inquisition, with all its horrors, was established against those who should read, possess, or receive other papers, not only foreign but even Spanish, that were not out of the Regency's manufacture. Contrary to the very orders, previously issued to deceive the country, every bound was overleaped in the selection of ultramarine functionaries, whose merit alone consisted in having sworn to maintain the system contrived by the Regency; in the most scandalous and barefaced manner the order which favoured our trade, and encouraged our agriculture, was declared null, condemned to be burnt, and its authors and promoters proscribed; aid of every kind was exacted from us, without any account of its destination or expenditure being sent to us; in contempt of every shadow of public faith, and without any exception whatever, all correspondence from these countries was ordered to be opened; an excess unknown even under the despotism of Godoy, and only adopted to cause the espionage over America to be more tyrannical. In short, the plans plotted to perpetuate our servitude, now began practically to be realised.

'In the mean time Venezuela, free, and mistress of herself, of nothing thought less than to imitate the detestable conduct of the Regency and its agents; content with having secured her fate against the ambition of an intrusive and illegitimate government, and shielded it against plans too dark and complicated, was satisfied in shewing, by positive acts, her desire of peace, friendship, correspondence, and co-operation with her European brothers. All those who were amongst us, were considered as such, and two-thirds of the political, civil, and military employments, both of the high and middle classes, remained, or were placed in the hands of Europeans, without any further precaution, but with a sincerity and good faith, that nearly proved fatal to our interests.

'Our chests were generously opened, to aid with every luxury, to the end, that our tyrants in their passage from us, might enjoy every convenience and profusion; the captains of the packets, Carmen, Fortuna, and Araucana, were received into our ports, and assisted with money, to enable them to proceed on their voyage, and fulfil their respective commissions; and even the disrespect and crimes of the commander of the Fortuna, were referred to the judgment of the Spanish government. Notwithstanding the governmental Junta of Caracas, manifested the reasons of precaution, which obliged them not to expose to the voracity of the government the public funds, which were destined to succour the nation, they exhorted and left room for the generosity of the people, to use their fortunes conformably to the impulse of their own sensibility, by publishing in the newspapers the mournful manifest, in which the Regency pourtrayed the agonizing state of the nation, in order to implore aid; at the same time, that they represented it vigorous, organised, and triumphant in the public prints, destined to deceive us. The commissioners of the Regency bound to Quito, Santa Fé, and Peru, were hospitably received, treated as friends, and their pecuniary wants supplied to their own satisfaction.—But we lose time, in thus analysing the dark and cunning conduct of our enemies, as all their endeavours have not sufficed]

[to warp the imperious and triumphing impression of ours.

'The arrogant mandataries of our country, were not, however, the only ones, authorised to support the horrid plot of their constituents; the same uniform and universal mission, was brought out by all those who inundated America, from the sad and ominous reigns of the Junta of Seville, the central one, and the Regency; and under the system of political freemasonry, founded on the Machiavelic pact, they all accorded in mutually substituting, replacing, and assisting each other, in the plans combined against the felicity and political existence of the New World. The island of Puerto Rico, was immediately made the haunt of all the agents of the Regency, the place of equipment for all the expeditions, the headquarters of all the anti-American forces, the workshop of all the impostures, calumnies, triumphs, and threats of the Regents; the refuge of all the wicked, the rendezvous port of a new set of Filibustiers, in order that there might not be wanting any of the calamities of the 16th century, to the new conquest of America, in the 19th. The Americans of Puerto Rico, oppressed by the bayonets, cannons, fetters, and gibbets which surrounded the bashaw Melendez, and his satellites, had to add to their own evils and misfortunes, the painful necessity of contributing to ours. Such is the fate of the Americans, condemned not only to be galley slaves, but to be the drivers of each other.

'The conduct observed by Spain to America, is harder and more insulting, when compared with that she appears to exercise with regard to France. It is well known, that the new dynasty, still resisted by part of the nation, has had decided partizans in many of those, who considered themselves the first national dignitaries, for their rank, offices, talents, and knowledge, amongst whom might be recounted Morla, Azanza, Ofarill, Urquijo, Mazarredo, and many others of every class and profession; but still there has not appeared one of those who so much desire the liberty, independence, and regeneration of the Peninsula, who has raised his voice in favour of the American provinces. These, therefore, adopting the same principles of fidelity and national integrity, have of their own accord, been ambitious of preserving themselves independent of such intrusive, illegitimate, weak, and tumultuary governments, as have been all those, which have hitherto called themselves the agents of the king, or representatives of the nation. It is vexing to see so much liberality, so much civism, and so much disinterest in the Cortes, with regard to Spain, disorganised, exhausted, and nearly conquered; and at the same time, so much meanness, so much suspicion, prejudice, and pride, towards America; tranquil, faithful, generous, decided to aid her brethren; when it is she alone who can give reality, (in the most essential point at least) to the theoretical and brilliant plans, which make the Spanish congress so exalted. How many treasons, surrenders, assassinations, perfidies, and convulsions, have not appeared in the revolution of Spain; these have passed by as the inseparable misfortunes of circumstances, yet not one of the provinces surrendered, or satisfied with the dominion of the French, has been treated like Venezuela; their conduct must however have been analysed and characterised according to reasons, motives, and circumstances that dictated it; this must have been judged in conformity to the rights of war, and the sentiments of the nation must have been pronounced according to the statements laid before it; but not one of them has yet been declared traitorous, in rebellion, and unnaturalised, as was Venezuela; for none of them has been created a public commission of diplomatic mutineers, to arm Spaniard against Spaniard, to fan the flame of civil war, and to burn and dilapidate all that cannot be held in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh. America alone is condemned to endure the unheard of condition of being warred upon, destroyed, and enslaved, with the very aids she destined for the liberty and common felicity of the nation of which she was led to believe, for a few moments, that she constituted part.

'It appears that the independence of America, creates more irritation to Spain, than the foreign oppression that threatens her; for against her are, preferably employed, measures that have not even been used against the very provinces that have proclaimed the new king. The incendiary and turbulent talent of a minister of the council of the Indies, could not have a more dignified employment, than that of again conquering Venezuela, with the same arms as those of the Alfingers and the Weslers, (the first tyrants of Venezuela, authorised by Charles V. and the promoters of civil war amongst its primitive inhabitants), in the name of a king placed on the throne, against the pretensions of the family of him who let out these provinces to the German factors. Under this name, all the sluices of iniquity are opened upon us, and the horrors of the conquest are renewed, the remembrance of which]

[we had generously endeavoured to blot out from our posterity; under this name we are treated with more severity than those who abandoned it before we did; and under this name it is attempted to continue the system of Spanish dominion in America, which has been held as a political phenomenon, even in the times of the reality, energy, and vigour of the Spanish monarchy. And can there be found any law that obliges us to preserve it, and to suffer in its name the torrent of distresses heaped upon us by those who call themselves its agents in the peninsula? By their means, this very name obtained the treasure, the obedience and acknowledgement of America; and by means of their flagitious conduct afterwards, in the exercise of their powers, the name of Ferdinand has lost every consideration amongst us, and consequently ought to be abandoned for ever.—*Ex qua persona quis lucrum capit, ejus factum præstare tenetur.*

'The tyrant of Borriquen, (the primitive name of the island of Puerto Rico), not content with creating himself into a sovereign, to declare war against us, and with insulting and calumniating us in his flimsy, mean, and flattering prints; not satisfied with constituting himself into the gratuitous jail-keeper of the emissaries of peace and confederation, sent to him by his comrade Miyares, from the castle of Zapàras de Maracaibo; because they overturned the plans he had received and accepted from the Regency and the new king of Spain, in exchange for the captain-generalship of Venezuela, purchased at a cheap rate from the Regents; not considering such superior merit sufficienty rewarded with the honour of faithfully serving his king, in the most barefaced manner plundered more than 100,000 dollars of the public funds, belonging to Caracas, that had been embarked on board the ship Ferdinand the Seventh, in order to purchase stores and military clothing in London, where the insurance was effected, and in order that his insult might be the more complete, he alledged that the Spanish government might waste and misapply them, that England might appropriate them to herself, disowning our resolution; so that in no place they could, or ought to be more secure than in his hands, negociated by means of his partners in trade, as in fact they were in Philadelphia, adding, that account of the capital thereof was to be given in when Puerto Rico had conquered Venezuela, when the latter should deliver herself up to the Regency, or when Ferdinand VII. should return to reign in Spain.—Such were the periods, it appears, that the governor of Puerto Rico imposed upon himself, to render in account of so atrocious and scandalous a depredation; but this is not all that this worthy agent of the Regency has done in favour of the designs of his constituents.

'Notwithstanding so much insult, robbery, and ingratitude, Venezuela maintained her resolution not to vary the principles she had traced out for her conduct, the sublime act of her national representation was proclaimed in the name of Ferdinand VII. under his fantastical authority, all the acts of our government and administration were sustained, though they required no other origin than the people who had constituted them; by the laws and regulations of Spain was judged a horrible and sanguinary conspiracy of the Europeans, which were even infringed to save their lives, in order that the philanthropic memory of our revolution might not be stained with the blood of our perfidious brethren; under the name of Ferdinand, and by the interposition of the bonds of fraternity and patriotism, endeavours were made to inform and reduce the imperious mandataries of Coro and Maracaibo, who perfidiously kept separated from our interests our brethren of the west; under the auspices of reciprocal interest, we triumphed over the oppressive acts of Barcelona, and under the same we will reconquer Guayana, twice snatched from our confederation, as was Maracaibo, against the general wishes of its inhabitants.

'It would have seemed that nothing was now left to be done for the reconciliation of Spain, or for the entire and absolute separation of America from such a system of generosity, equally as ruinous and calamitous, as contemptible and ungrateful; but Venezuela was desirous of draining every means left within her reach, in order that justice and necessity should leave her no other safe alternative than that of independence, which ought to have been declared from July 15, 1808, or from April 19, 1810. After appealing to sensibility, and not to vengeance, in the horrid scenes that occurred at Quito, Pore, and La Paz; after beholding our own cause supported by the uniformity of opinions in Buenos Ayres, Santa Fé, the Floridas, Mexico, Guatemala, and Chili; after obtaining an indirect guarantee on the part of England; after hearing our conduct applauded by impartial men in Europe; after seeing the same principles triumph from the Orinoco, as far as El Magdalena; and from Cape Codera, as far as the Andes; we have still to endure fresh insults, before we fly to the painful extreme of breaking with our brethren for ever.]

[' Caracas, without having done more than imitate many of the provinces of Spain; and used the same rights which the Council of Regency declared in her favour, as well as that of all America; without having had in this conduct other designs than those inspired by the supreme law of necessity not to be involved in an unknown fate, and to relieve the Regents of the trouble of attending to the government of countries, as well extensive as remote, at the same time that they protested that they would attend to nothing but the war; without having torn asunder her unity and political integrity with Spain; without having disowned, as was possible and proper, the lame rights of Ferdinand; far from applauding for convenience, if not from sentiments of generosity, so just, necessary, and modest a resolution, and without answering even, or submitting to the judgment of the nation our complaints and claims, is declared in a state of war, her inhabitants are proclaimed rebels, and unnaturalised; every communication is cut off with her brethren; England is deprived of her trade, the excesses of Melendez are approved, and he is authorised to commit whatever his malignity of heart may suggest to him, however opposed to reason and justice, as is proved by the order of September 4, 1810, unheard of for its enormity, even amongst the despots of Constantinople or Indostan; and not to deviate in the least from the plots of the conquest, a new *encomendero* is sent out under the name of a pacificator, who, with more prerogatives than the conquerors and settlers themselves was to take his post in Puerto Rico, and thence to threaten, rob, pirate, deceive, excite civil disturbances, and all in the name of Ferdinand VII.

' Till then the progress of the system of subversion, anarchy, and depredation, which the Regency proposed to itself on hearing of the movements of Caracas, had been but slow, but the principal focus of the civil war being transferred nearer to us, the subaltern agents acquired more strength; the flames of the passions were multiplied, as well as the efforts of the parties directed by the chiefs hired by Cortavarria and Melendez. Hence originated the incendiary energy acquired by the ephemeral sedition of the west; hence the discord newly fanned by Miyares, rendered vain and arrogant by the imaginary and promised captain-generalship of Venezuela; hence the American blood, in spite of ourselves, spilt on the sands of Coro; hence the robberies and assassinations committed on our coasts by the pirates of the Regency; hence that miserable blockable, intended to seduce and disaffect our shore settlements; hence the insults committed on the English flag; hence the falling off of our trade; hence the conspiracies of the vallies of Aragua and Cumanà; hence the horrid perfidy in Guyana, and the insulting deportation of its leading characters to the Moorish dungeons of Puerto Rico, dungeons constructed like those of Tunis and Algiers; hence the generous and impartial offices of reconciliation, sincerely interposed by a representative of the British government in the Antilles, and rejected by the pseudo-pacificator, (the official dispatch of Admiral Cochrane in the Secretary of State's office); hence, in short, all the evils, all the atrocities, and all the crimes, which are, and ever will be, inseparable to the names of Cortavarria and Melendez in Venezuela, and which have impelled her government to go beyond what was proposed, when it took upon itself the fate of those who honoured it with their confidence.

' The mission of Cortavarria, in the 19th century, and the state of Spain who decreed it, compared with America, against whom it is directed, evinces, to what an extreme the illusion of ambition blinds those who, on the depravation of the people, found all the origin of their authority. This act alone sufficed to authorise our conduct. The spirit of Charles V. the memory of Cortes and Pizarro, and the manes of Montezuma and Atahualpa, are involuntarily reproduced to our imagination, when we see the *adelantados*, *pesquisidores*, and *encomendoros*, offices peculiar to the first settlement of America, renewed in a country, which having endured 300 years of submission and sacrifices, had promised to continue in allegiance on the only condition of being free, in order that the circumstances of slavery might not blemish the merit of fidelity. The scandalous plenitude of power confided to a man, authorised by an intrusive and illegitimate government, that under the insulting name of pacificator, he might depotise, excite, rob, and, to crown the insult, that he might offer pardon to a people, noble, innocent, tranquil, generous, and masters of their own rights; could only be credited in the impotent delirium of a government that tyrannises over a nation disorganised and stunned by the horrid tempest that overtakes her; but as the ills of this disorder, and the abuses of such an usurpation might be considered as not imputable to Ferdinand, already acknowledged in Venezuela, at the same time that he was unable to remedy so much insult, such excesses, and so much violence committed in his name, we]

[consider it necessary to remount to the origin of these same rights, that we may then descend to the nullity and invalidity of the generous oath by which we conditionally acknowledged him; notwithstanding we have, in spite of ourselves, to violate the spontaneous silence we had imposed upon us, respecting every thing that was anterior to the transactions of El Escurial and Aranjuez.

'It is an evident fact, that America does not belong to the territory of Spain, and it is moreover also true, that the rights which the Bourbons, justly or unjustly, had to it, notwithstanding they were hereditary, could not be disposed of without the consent of the people, and particularly of those of America, who, on the election between the French and Austrian dynasties, might have done in the 17th century what they have now done in the 19th. The bull of Alexander VI. and the just titles which the house of Austria alledged in the American code, had no other origin than the right of conquest, partially ceded to the conquerors and settlers, for the aid they had rendered to the crown in order to extend its dominion in America. Without taking into consideration the depopulation of the country, the extermination of the natives, and the emigration which the supposed mother country sustained, it appears, that when the fury of conquest had ceased; when the thirst for gold was satisfied; when the continental equilibrium was declared in favour of Spain, by the advantageous acquisition of America; the feudal government destroyed and rooted up from the time of the reign of the Bourbons in Spain, and every right extinct that did not originate in the new concessions or mandates of the prince, the conquerors and settlers then became absolved of theirs. As soon as the lameness and invalidity of the rights arrogated to themselves by the Bourbons is demonstrated; the titles by which the Americans, descendants of the conquerors, possessed these countries, revive; not in detriment to the natives and primitive proprietors, but to equalise them in the enjoyment of liberty, property, and independence, which they always held by a right stronger than that of the Bourbons, or of any others to whom they may have ceded America, without the consent of the Americans, its natural owners.

'That America does not belong to the territory of Spain, is a principle of natural, and a law of positive right. No title, just or unjust, which exists of her slavery, can apply to the Spaniards of Europe; and all the liberality of Alexander VI. could not do more than declare the Austrian kings promoters of the faith, in order to find out for them a preternatural right, whereby to make them lords of America. Neither the pre-eminence of the parent state, nor the prerogative of the mother country, could at any time ground the origin of lordship on the part of Spain. The first was lost, from the time that the monarch, acknowledged by the Americans, left the country and renonnced his rights, and the second always amounted to nothing more than a scandalous abuse of words; as was that of calling our slavery, felicity; that of saying the *fiscals* were the protectors of the Indians; and that the sons of Americans were divested of every right and civil dignity. By the mere act of men passing from one country to another to settle it, those who do not leave their homes, acquire no property, nor do they expose themselves to the hardships inseparable to emigration. Those who conquer and obtain possession of a country by means of their labour, industry, cultivation, and connection with the natives thereof, are they who have a preferable right to preserve it, and transmit it to their posterity born therein; for if the country where one is born, were considered as an origin of sovereignty or a title of acquisition, the general will of nations, and the fate of the human race, would then be rivited to the soil, in like manner as are the trees, mountains, rivers, and lakes.

'Neither could it ever be considered as a title of property to the rest of a nation, for one part thereof to have past over to another country to settle it; for by a right of this nature, Spain herself would belong to the Phœnicians, their descendants, or to the Carthagenians, wherever they may be found; even the whole of the nations of Europe would have to change their abodes to make room and re-establish so singular a territorial right; home would then become as precarious as are the wants and caprices of men. The moral abuse of the maternity of Spain, with regard to America, is still more insignificant, for it is well known, that in the natural order of things, it is the duty of the father to emancipate his son, as soon as getting out of his minority, he is able to use his strength and reason to provide for his own subsistence; and also, that it is the duty of the son to emancipate himself, whenever the cruelty or extravagance of the father or tutor endanger his well-being, or expose his patrimony to be the prey of a miser or an usurper. Under these principles, let a comparison be made of the 300 years of our filiation to Spain; and even when it should be proved]

[that she was our mother, it would still remain to be proved, that we are yet her minors or pupils.

'At any period, when Spain has entertained any doubt of the rights of the Bourbons, or of any other dynasty, the only source, and that not very clear, of the Spanish dominion in America; it appeared as if the Americans were excluded from alledging any reasons that might destroy such claims, doubtful from their very origin; but as Venezuela may be hereafter reproached for the conditional oath by which the representative body that now declares its independence of every other foreign power, previously acknowledged Ferdinand VII.—this same august body feels anxious that no handle should be left for the scruples of conscience, for the illusions of ignorance, and for the malice of wounded ambition, whereby to discredit, calumniate, and weaken a resolution, taken with a maturity and deliberation suitable to its magnitude and importance.

'It is well known, that the promissory oath in question, is no more than an accessory bond, which always pre-supposes the validity and legitimacy of the contract ratified by the same. When in the contract there is no vice which may render it null and illegitimate, it is, that we believe that God, invoked by an oath, will not then refuse to witness and guarantee the fulfilment of our promises, because the obligation to comply with them is founded on an evident maxim of the natural law instituted by the divine author. God can at no time guarantee any thing that is not binding in the natural order of things, nor can it be supposed he will accept of any contract, opposed to those very laws he himself has established for the felicity of the human race. It would be to insult his wisdom, to believe that he is capable of listening to our vows, when we implore his divine concurrence to a contract that clashes with our own liberty, the only origin of the morality of our actions; such a supposition would indicate, that God had an interest in multiplying our duties, in prejudice to natural liberty, by means of such agreements. Even when the oath were to add any new obligation to that of the contract thereby confirmed, the nullity of the one would at all times be inseparable to the nullity of the other; and if he who violates a sworn contract is criminal and worthy of punishment, it is because he has violated good faith, the only bond of society; without the perjury doing more than serving to increase the crime and to aggravate the punishment. That natural law which obliges us to fulfil our promises, and that divine one which forbids us to invoke the name of God in vain, do not in any manner alter the nature of the obligations contracted under the simultaneous and inseparable effects of both laws; so that the infraction of the one, supposes the infraction of the other. For our own good we call on God to witness our promises, and when we believe that he can guarantee them and avenge their violation, it is alone because the contract has nothing in itself capable of rendering it invalid, illicit, unworthy of, or contrary to, the eternal justice of the Supreme Arbiter, to whom we submit it. Under these principles it is that we are to analyse the conditional oath by which the Congress of Venezuela has promised to preserve the rights legally held by Ferdinand VII. without attributing to it any other, which, being contrary to the liberty of the people, would of consequence invalidate the contract and annul the oath.

'We have at length seen, that impelled by the conduct of the governments of Spain, the people of Venezuela became sensible of the circumstances by which the tolerated rights of Ferdinand VII. were rendered void in consequence of the transactions of El Escurial and Aranjuez; as well as those of all his house, by the cessions and abdications made at Bayonne; and from the demonstration of this truth, follows, as a corollary, the invalidity of an oath, which, besides being conditional, could not subsist beyond the contract to which it was added, as an accessory bond. To preserve the rights of Ferdinand, was all that Caracas promised on April 19, at a time she was ignorant he had lost them,—*Judicio caret juramentum incantum.* Div. tom. 22. p. 89. art. 3. *Si vero sit quidem possibile fieri; sed fieri non debeat, vel quia est per se malum, vel quia est boni impeditivum, tunc juramento deest justitia, et ideo non est servandum.*—Quest. cit. art. 7. Even if Ferdinand retained them, with regard to Spain, it remains to be proved, whether, by virtue of the same, he was able to cede America to another dynasty, without her own consent. The advices, which in spite of the oppression and cunning of the intrusive governments of Spain, Venezuela was enabled to obtain of the conduct of the Bourbons, and the fatal effects the same was about to entail on America, have constituted a body of irrefragable proofs, evincing, that as Ferdinand no longer retained any rights, the preservation thereof, which Venezuela promised, as well as the oath by which she confirmed this promise,]

[consequently are, and ought to be done away, *Jurabis in veritate, et in judicio, et in justicia.*—Jerem. cap. 4. Of the first part of the position, the nullity of the second becomes a legitimate consequence.

'But neither the Escurial, Aranjeuz, or Bayona, were the first theatres of the transactions which deprived the Bourbons of their rights to America. Already in Basil, (by the treaty made on July 15, 1795, and by which Godoy obtained the title of Prince of Peace), and in the court of Spain, the fundamental laws of the Spanish dominion in these countries, had been broken through. Charles IV. contrary to one of them, ceded the island of St. Domingo to France,—(See *Recopil de Indias*, law i. tit. 1.) and disposed of Louisiana to the same foreign power, which unheard of, and scandalous infractions, authorised the Americans, against whom they were committed, as well as the whole of the Columbian people, to separate from the obedience and lay aside the oath, by which they had bound themselves to the crown of Castile, in like manner as they were entitled to protest against the eminent danger which threatened the integrity of the monarchy in both worlds, by the introduction of French troops into Spain, previous to the transactions of Bayona; invited there, no doubt, by one of the Bourbon factions, in order to usurp the national sovereignty in favour of an intruder, a foreigner, or a traitor; but as these events are prior to the period we have fixed for our discussion, we will return to treat of those which have authorised our conduct, since the year 1808.

'Every one is aware of the occurrences which happened at the Escurial, in 1807, but perhaps every one is not acquainted with the natural effects of these events. It is not our intention here to enter into the discovery of the origin of the discord that existed in the family of Charles IV. let England and France attribute it to themselves, both governments have their accusers and defenders; neither is it to our purpose to notice the marriage agreed on between Ferdinand and the daughter-in-law of Buonaparte, the peace of Tilsit, the conferences at Erfuhrt, the secret treaty of St. Cloud, and the emigration of the house of Braganza to the Brazils. What most materially concerns us is, that by the transactions of El Escurial, Ferdinand VII. was declared a traitor against his father, Charles IV. A hundred pens, and a hundred presses, published at the same time in both worlds his perfidy, and the pardon which at his prayer, was granted to him by his father; but this pardon as an attribute of the sovereignty and of paternal authority, only absolved the son from corporal punishment; the king his father, had no power to free him from the infamy and inability which the constitutional laws of Spain impose on the traitor, not only to hinder him from obtaining the royal dignity, but even the lowest office or civil employment. Ferdinand, therefore, never could be king of Spain, or of the Indies.

'To this condition the heir of the crown remained reduced, till the month of March, 1808, when, whilst the court was at Aranjuez, the project frustrated at the Escurial was converted into insurrection and open mutiny, by the friends of Ferdinand. The public exasperation against the ministry of Godoy, served as a pretext to the faction of Ferdinand, and as a plea indirectly to convert into the good of the nation, what was perhaps calculated under other designs. The fact of using force against his father; his not rather recurring to supplication and convincing arguments; his having excited mutiny on the part of the people; his having assembled them in front of the palace in order to surprise it, to insult the minister, and force the king to abdicate his crown; far from giving him any title to it; only tended to increase his crime, to aggravate his treachery, and complete his inability to ascend the throne, vacated by means of violence, perfidy, and factions. Charles IV. outraged, disobeyed, and threatened with force, had no other alternative left him, suitable to his decorum, and favourable to his vengeance, than to emigrate to France, to implore the protection of Buonaparte, in favour of his offended royal dignity. Under the nullity of the abdications of Aranjuez, all the Bourbons assemble in Bayona, carried there against the will of the people, to whose safety they preferred their own particular resentments; the Emperor of the French took advantage of them, and when he held under his controul, and within his influence, the whole family of Ferdinand, as well as several of the first Spanish dignitaries and substitutes for deputies in the Cortes; he caused the son to restore the crown to his father, and the latter then to make it over to him the Emperor, in order that he might afterwards confer it on his brother Joseph Napoleon.

'Venezuela was ignorant of all this, or at least only knew it partially, when the emissaries of the new king reached Caracas. The innocence of Ferdinand, compared with the insolence and]

[despotism of the favourite Godoy, impelled and directed her conduct, when the local authorities wavered on the 15th of July, 1808; and being left to choose between the alternative of delivering herself up to a foreign power, or of remaining faithful to a king, who appeared unfortunate and persecuted, the ignorance of events triumphed over the true interests of the country, and Ferdinand was acknowledged, under a belief that, by this means, the unity of the nation being maintained, she would be saved from the threatened oppression, and a king be ransomed, of whose virtues, wisdom, and rights, we were falsely prepossessed. But less was requisite to oppress us, on the part of those who relied on our good faith. Ferdinand, disqualified and unable to obtain the crown; previously announced by the leaders of Spain as dispossed of his rights to the succession; incapable of governing in America, held in bondage, and under the influence of a foreign power; from that time, became by illusion, a legitimate but unfortunate prince; it was feigned a duty to acknowledge him; as many as had the audacity to call themselves such, became his self-created heirs and representatives, and taking advantage of the innate fidelity of the Spaniards of both worlds, and forming themselves into intrusive governments, they appropriated to themselves the sovereignty of the people, in the name of a chimerical king, began to exercise new tyrannies, and, in a word, the commercial Junto of Cadiz sought to extend her control over the whole of Spanish America.

'Such have been the antecedents and consequences of an oath, which, dictated by candour and generosity, and conditionally maintained by good faith, is now brought against us, in order to perpetuate those evils which the dear-bought experience of three years has proved to be inseparable to so fatal and ruinous an engagement. Taught, as we are, by a series of evils, insults, hardships, and ingratitude, during an interval from the 15th of July, 1808, until the 5th of July, 1811, and such as we have already fully manifested; it becomes full time that we should abandon a talisman invented by ignorance, and adopted by a misguided fidelity, for ever since it has existed, it has not failed to heap upon us all the evils attendant on an ambiguous state, and on suspicion and discord. The rights of Ferdinand, and the legitimate representation of them on the part of the intrusive governments of Spain, fidelity and the obligations of compassion and gratitude on ours, are the two favourite springs alternately played to sustain our illusion, to devour our substance, prolong our degradation, multiply our evils, and to prepare us ignominiously to receive that passive fate, prepared for us by those who have dealt with us so kindly for three centuries. Ferdinand the Seventh is the universal watch word for tyranny in Spain, as well as America.

'No sooner was that vigilant and suspicious fear, produced amongst us by the contradictory acts, the arts and falsehoods of the strange and short-lived governments, which have succeeded one another in Spain, since the Junta of Seville, there made known, than they recurred to a system of apparent liberality towards us, in order to cover with flowers the very snare we had not perceived whilst shrowded by the veil of candour, at length rent asunder by mistrust. For this purpose, were accelerated and tumultuously assembled the Cortes, so desired by the nation, yet opposed by the commercial government of Cadiz, but which were at length considered necessary, in order to restrain the torrent of liberty and justice, which in every quarter burst the mounds of oppression and iniquity in the new world: still it was supposed that the habit of obedience, submission, and dependence, would, in us, be superior to the conviction, which, at so great an expense, we had just obtained. It appears incredible by what kind of deception, fatal to Spain, it is believed, that the part of the nation which passes the ocean, or is born under the tropics, acquires a constitution suitable to servitude, and incapable of ceding to the efforts of liberty. As notorious to the world, as they are fatal, are the effects of this strong rooted prejudice, at length converted into the good of America. Perhaps without it, Spain would not have lost the rank of a nation, and America, in obtaining this blessing, would not have had to have passed through the bitter ordeal of a civil war, more ominous still for its promoters, than for ourselves.

'Our public prints have already sufficiently well manifested the defects, under which the Cortes laboured respecting America, and the illegal and insulting measures by them adopted, to give us therein a representation which we could not but oppose, even though we were, as the Regency had loudly boasted us to be, integral parts of the nation, and had no other complaints to allege against their government, than the scandalous usurpation of our rights, at a moment they most required our aid. They will have been informed, no doubt, of the reasonings we used with their perfidious envoy, Montenegro, at a time that the former missions being frustrated,]

[the great shipments of newspapers, filled with triumphs, reforms, heroic acts, and lamentations, being rendered useless, and the inefficacy of blockades, pacificators, squadrons, and expeditions, made known; it was thought necessary to dazzle the self love of the Americans, by seating near the throne of the Cortes, members whom the latter had never named, nor who could be chosen by those who created them into their substitutes, as in like manner they did others for the provinces in possession of the French, submitting to and alleging themselves content with their dominion. In case this puerile measure, of which Spain has been prolific, should not have had its due effect, the envoy was directed, (and an American and a native of Caracas, in order to add to the illusion, was for this purpose selected), that in case the energy of the country, now defined rebellion, should prevail against perfidy to which the name of fraternity was given, he was to add fuel to the flame of the passions, already kindled in Coro and Maracaibo, and that discord, again raising her serpent head, might lead the herald of the Cortes by the hand under the standard of rebellion, through those deceived districts of Venezuela, that had not been able to triumph over their tyrants.

'New artifices were still forged, in order that duplicity and cunning might prepare the road to the sanguinary armies of the chiefs of Coro, Maracaibo, and Puerto Rico; and when the Cortes were convinced that the conduct of Ferdinand, his bonds of affinity with the Emperor of the French, and the influence of the latter over all the Bourbons already placed under his tutelage, began to weaken the insidious impressions, which fidelity, sustained by illusion, had produced in the Americans; preventatives were placed, in order to stop the flame thus enkindled, and limit it to what was yet necessary for their vast, complicated, and remote designs. For this purpose was written the eloquent manifest which the Cortes aimed, on the 9th of January, 1811, against America, worded in a style worthy of a better object, but under the brilliancy of diction, the back ground of the perspective, designed to deceive us, was discovered. Fearing that we should be beforehand to protest against the whole of these nullities, they began to calculate on what was already known, not to risque what was yet hidden. The misfortunes of Ferdinand were the pretexts that had obtained for his pseudo-representatives, the treasures, submission, and slavery of America, after the events of Bayonne; and Ferdinand seduced, deceived, and prostituted to the designs of the Emperor of the French, is now the last resource to which they fly, to extinguish the flames of liberty, which Venezuela had kindled in the South Continent. In one of our periodical works (Vide Mercurio Venezolano, for Feb. 1811) we have discovered the true spirit of the manifest in question, reduced to the following reasoning, which may be considered as an exact commentary:—"America is threatened to become the victim of a foreign power, or to continue to be our slave; but in order to recover her rights, and throw off all dependency whatever, she has considered it necessary not violently to break the ties which held her bound to this country. Ferdinand has been the signal of re-union which the new world has adopted, and we have followed; he is suspected of connivance with the Emperor of the French, and if we give ourselves up blindly to acknowledge him, we afford the Americans a pretext for believing us still his representatives, and openly denying us this character, and as these designs already begin to be understood in some parts of America, let us previously manifest our intention, not to acknowledge Ferdinand but under certain conditions; these will never be carried into effect, and whilst Ferdinand neither in fact, or right, is our king, we shall be enabled to reign over America, which country so much coveted by us, and so difficult to maintain in slavery, will not then so easily slip through our fingers." These expressions are supposed to be uttered by a Spaniard, and are illustrative of the opinions agitated in the Cortes respecting the allegiance to Ferdinand.

'The above resplendent appearance of liberality, is now the real and visible spring of the complicated machine destined to stir up and excite commotions in America; at the same time, that within the walls of the Cortes, justice to us is overlooked, our efforts are eluded, our resolutions contemned, our enemies upheld, the voices of our imaginary representatives suppressed, the inquisition is renewed against them, at the same time that the liberty of the press is proclaimed, and it is controversially discussed, whether the Regency could or not declare us free, and an integral part of the nation. (Vide El Conciso, The Diarios of Cadiz, and all the papers that came from Spain). When an American, worthy of that name, raises his voice against the abuses of the Regency, in Puerto Rico: endeavours are made to silence his just, energetic, and imperious claims, which distinguish him from the satellites of despotism, and by means of]

[a decree, short, cunning, and insignificant, they strive to get out of the conflict of justice against iniquity. Melendez, named king of Puerto Rico by the Regency, by a decree of the Cortes is left with the equivalent investiture of governor, synonymous names in America; because it now appeared too monstrous to have two kings, in a small island of the Spanish Antilles. Cortavarria alone was sufficient to elude the effects of a decree, only dictated by an involuntary sentiment of decency. Thus it happened, that when the investiture, granted by the Regency to Melendez was declared iniquitous, arbitrary, and tyrannical, and a revocation was extended to all the countries of America, then situated as was Puerto Rico, nothing was said of the plenipotentiary Cortavarria, authorized by the same Regency against Venezuela, with powers, the most uncommon and scandalous, ever remembered in the annals of organical despotism.

'It was after this decree of the Cortes, that the effects of that discord, promoted, sustained, and aimed from the fatal observatory of Puerto Rico, were more severely felt; it was after this decree, that the fishermen and coasters were inhumanly assassinated in Ocumàre, by the pirates of Cortavarria; after the publication of the same, Cumanà and Barcelona were blockaded, threatened, and summoned; a new and sanguinary conspiracy, against Venezuela, was plotted and organized, by a vile emissary, who perfidiously entered the pacific bosom of his country, in order to devour it; deceptions were successively practised on the most innocent and laborious classes of the imported colonists of Venezuela, principally emigrants from the Canary Islands, employed in tillage, remarkable for their sobriety and industry; and in spite of our endeavours, the chief instigators were led to the block, as a sacrifice to justice and tranquillity. By the suggestions of the Pacificator of the Cortes, and posterior to their said decree, the political unity of our constitution was interrupted in Valencia; attempts were in vain made to seduce other cities of the interior; a false summons was sent to Carora by the factious leaders of the west, in order that on the same day Venezuela might be deluged in blood, and sunk in affliction and desolation; and be hostilely assaulted from every point within the reach of the conspirators, who were scattered amongst us by the same government, which issued the decree in favour of Puerto Rico and of all America. The name of Ferdinand VII. is the pretext under which the new world is about to be laid waste, if the example of Venezuela does not henceforward cause the banners of an unshaken and decided liberty, to be distinguished from those of a malicious and dissembled fidelity.

'The bitter duty of vindicating ourselves would still carry us further, if we did not dread splitting on the same rocks as the government of Spain, by substituting resentment for justice; at the same time that we can charge her with three centuries of injuries, backed by three years of lawful, generous, and philanthropic efforts, in vain expended to obtain what it was never in our power to dispose of. Had gall and poison been the chief agents of this our solemn, true, and candid manifest, we should have began by destroying the rights of Ferdinand, in consequence of the illegitimacy of his origin, declared by his mother in Bayonne, and published in the French and Spanish papers; we should have proved the personal defects of Ferdinand, his ineptitude to reign, his weak and degraded conduct in the Cortes of Bayonne, his inefficient and insignificant education, and the futile securities he offered for the realization of the gigantic hopes of the governments of Spain, hopes that had no other origin than the illusion of America, nor any other support than the political interest of England, much opposed to the rights of the Bourbons. The public opinion of Spain, and the experience of the revolution of the kingdom, furnish us with sufficient proofs of the conduct of the mother, and the qualities of the son, without recurring to the manifest of minister Azanza, published after the transactions of Bayona, and the secret memoirs of Maria Louisa; but decency is the guide of our conduct, to her we are ready to sacrifice our best reasons. Sufficient has already been alleged to prove the justice, necessity, and utility of our resolution, to the support of which nothing is wanting but the examples by which we will strive to justify our independence.

'It were necessary for the partizans of slavery in the new world, either to destroy or to falsify history, that unchangeable monument of the rights and usurpations of the human race, before they could maintain that America was not liable to the same changes that all other nations have experienced. Even when the rights of the Bourbons had been incontestable, and indelible the oath, which we have proved not to exist; the injustice, force, and deceit, with which the same was snatched from us, would suffice to render it void and of no effect, as soon as it was discovered to be opposed to our liberty, grievous to our rights, prejudicial to our interests, and fatal to]

[our tranquillity. Such is the nature of the oath made to the conquerors, and to their heirs, at the same time that the crown holds them in oppression by means of that same additional strength it obtained by the resources of their conquest. In this manner it was, that Spain herself recovered her rights after she had sworn allegiance to the Carthaginians, Romans, Goths, Arabs, and almost to the French; nevertheless she yet disowns the rights of America, no longer to depend on any nation from the time she is capable of throwing off its yoke, and following the example both of Spain, and of other nations. It would be superfluous to remind our enemies of what they already know, and in what they have themselves founded the sacred right of their own liberty and independence; epochs so memorable, that they were worthy of not being tarnished with the slavery of the greatest part of the nation, situated on the other side of the ocean. But unfortunately, it is not they alone whom it is requisite to convince by palpable examples, of the justice and common resemblance our independence bears with that of all other nations which had lost, and again recovered it. The illusions of slavery, kept alive by the candour of the Americans, and sustained by the most criminal abuse that can be made by superstition of the established belief and religion, which one would suppose were only dictated for the liberty, felicity, and salvation of the people, namely, by the excommunications denounced against the people of Caracas for changing their government, renders it necessary to tranquillize the deceived piety of some, to instruct their unwary ignorance, and stimulate their apathy, that had slumbered since the unusual tranquillity of the new order of things; it is, in short, time to inculcate, that governments never had, nor can have, any other duration than the utility and felicity of the human race, that kings are not of any privileged nature, nor of an order superior to other men; that their authority emanates from the will of the people, directed and supported by the Providence of God, who leaves our actions to our own free-will; that his omnipotence does not interfere in favour of this or that form of government, and that neither religion, or its ministers, can anathematize the efforts of a nation struggling to be free and independent in the political order of things, and resolved to depend only on God, and on his vicar, in a moral and religious sense.

'The very people of God governed by himself, and directed by such miracles, portentous signs and favours, as perhaps will never again be repeated, offer a proof of the rights of insurrection on the part of the people, sufficiently satisfactory to the orthodox piety of the friends of public order. The Israelites, subject to Pharaoh, and bound to his obedience by force, collect round Moses, and under his direction triumph over their enemies, and recover their independence, without either God, or his chief prophet and legislator Moses, blaming them for their conduct, or subjecting them to the least malediction or anathema. This same people being afterwards subjected by the forces of Nebuchadnezzar the First, under the direction of Holofernes, God himself sends Judith to obtain their independence, by the death of the Babylonian General. Under Antiochus Epiphanes, Mathathias and his sons raised the standard of independence, and God blessed and aided his efforts till he obtained the entire liberty of his people, against the oppression of that same impious king and his successors (Machab. lib. 1. cap. 2.) Not only against the foreign kings who oppressed them, did the Israelites make use of the right of insurrection, by breaking through the obedience to which they were bound by force; but even against those whom God had given them in their own country, and of their own nation, do we behold them claim this imprescriptible right, whenever their liberty and their advantage required it, or when the sacred character of those pacts, by which God himself bound them to those he chose as their governors, had been profaned. David obtains the allegiance of the Israelites in favour of his dynasty, and his son Solomon ratified it in favour of his posterity; but scarcely was this king dead, who had oppressed his subjects by exactions and contributions to support the splendor of his court, and the luxury and sumptuousness of his pleasures, than the tribes of Judah and Benjamin alone acknowledged his son, and the other 10, availing themselves of their rights, recover their political independence, and in exercise thereof deposit their sovereignty in Jeroboam, son of Nabath. The momentaneous and passing hardships of the reign of Solomon, sufficed for the Israelites to annul their obedience sworn to his line, and to place another on the throne, without waiting for God to tell them, that their fate no longer depended on the kings of Judah, nor on the ministers, priests, or chiefs of Solomon. And shall the christian people of Venezuela be still in a worse plight, and after being declared free by the government of Spain, after 300 years of captivity, exactions, hard-]

[ships, and injustice, shall they not be allowed to do what the God of Israel, whom they equally adore, formerly permitted to his people, without being spurned, and without vengeance being deprecated upon them? It is his divine hand that guides our conduct, and to his eternal judgments our resolution shall be submitted.

'If the independence of the Hebrew people was not a sin against the written law, that of a Christian people cannot be such against the law of grace. At no time has the Apostolical see excommunicated any nation that has risen up against the tyranny of those kings or governments which had violated the social compact. The Swiss, Dutch, French, and North Americans, proclaimed their independence, overturned their constitution, and varied their forms of government, without having incurred any other spiritual censures than those which the church might have fulminated for the infringements on the belief, discipline, or piety, but without their being connected with political measures, or alluding to the civil transactions of the people. The Swiss were bound by oath to Germany; as were also the Dutch to Spain; the French to Louis XVI. and the Americans to George III., yet neither they, nor the other princes who favoured their independence, were excommunicated by the Pope. The grandfather of Ferdinand VII. one of the most pious and catholic kings that ever filled the throne of Spain, together with his nephew Louis XVI. protected the independence of North America, without dreading ecclesiastical censures, or the anger of heaven; and now that the order of events more justly places it within the reach of South America, those who call themselves the authorized agents of his grandson, wish to abuse that same religion, so much respected even by Charles III. in order to prolong the most atrocious and unheard of usurpations. Just, omnipotent, and merciful God! Till when will fanaticism dispute the empire of that sacred religion, which thou sent to the uncorrupted regions of America, for thy glory and her felicity?

'The events which have accumulated in Europe, to terminate the servitude of America, have, beyond doubt, entered into the high designs of Providence. Placed at a transatlantic distance of 2,000 leagues, we have done nothing, in the three years which have elapsed since we ought to be free and independent, till the period when we resolved to be so, than pass through the bitter trials of stratagems, conspiracies, insults, hostilities, and depredations, on the part of that same nation whom we invite to partake of the goods of our regeneration, and for whose felicity we wished to open the gates of the new world, heretofore closed to all communication with the old one; now wasted and inflamed by war, hunger, and desolation. Three distinct oligarchies have declared war against us, have contemned our claims, have excited civil dissensions amongst us, have sown the seeds of discord and mistrust in our great family, have plotted three horrible conspiracies against our liberty, have interrupted our trade, have suppressed our agriculture, have traduced our conduct, and have sought to raise against us an Europian power, by vainly imploring its aid to oppress us. The same flag, the same language, the same religion, and the same laws, have, till now, confounded the party of liberty with that of tyranny; Ferdinand VII. as liberator, has been opposed to Ferdinand VII. as oppressor; and if we had not resolved to abandon a name, at the same time synonymous with crime and virtue, America would at length be enslaved by the same force that is wielded for the independence of Spain.

'Such has been the nature of the imperious impulse of conviction, tending to open our eyes, and to impel Venezuela eternally to separate from a name so ominous and so fatal. By it, placed in the irrevocable alternative of being the slave or the enemy of her brethren, she has preferred purchasing her own freedom, at the expense of friendship, without obstructing the means of that reconciliation she desired. Reasons the most powerful, interests the most sacred, meditations the most serious, considerations the most profound, long discussions, contested debates, combinations well analized, imperious events, most urgent dangers, and the public opinion, clearly pronounced and firmly sustained, have been the precursors of that solemn declaration, made on the 5th of July, by the General Congress of Venezuela, of the absolute independence of this part of South America; an act, sighed for and applauded by the people of the capital, sanctioned by the powers of the Confederation, acknowledged by the representatives of the provinces, sworn to and propitiously hailed by the chief of the church of Venezuela, and to be maintained with the lives, fortunes, and honours of all the citizens.

'Free men, companions of our fate! Ye who have known how to divest your hearts of fear or of hope; direct, from the elevation on which your virtues have placed you, an impartial and]

[disinterested look, on the portrait which Venezuela has just traced out for you. She constitutes you the arbitrators of her differences with Spain, and judges of her new destinies. If you have been affected by our evils, and are interested in our felicity, unite with us your efforts, that the artifices of ambition may not any longer triumph over liberality and justice. To you belong the offices of conviction towards Spain, which an unfortunate rivality places beyond the reach of America. Contain the giddiness which has seized upon her governments; point out to them the reciprocal benefits of our regeneration; unfold to them the soothing prospect which they are debarred from beholding in America, by the monopoly that has hardened their hearts; tell them what threatens them in Europe, and what they may expect in the New World, tranquil, uncorrupted, and already crowned with all the benedictions of liberty; swear to them, in short, in our name, that Venezuela awaits her brethren with open arms to share her happiness with them, without asking any other sacrifice than that of prejudice, pride and ambition, which have, for three ages, produced the united misery of both countries.

Juan Antonio Rodriguez Dominguez, Pres.
Francisco Isnardy, Secretary.

Federal Palace of Caracas,
July 30, 1811.

'*3. Act of Independence.*

'In the Name of the All-powerful God,

'We the Representatives of the United Provinces of Caracas, Cumana, Varinas, Margarita, Barcelona, Merida, and Truxillo, forming the American Confederation of Venezuela, in the S. Continent, in Congress assembled, considering the full and absolute possession of our rights, which we recovered justly and legally from April 19, 1810, in consequence of the occurrences in Bayonne, and the occupation of the Spanish throne by conquest, and the succession of a new dynasty, constituted without our consent; are desirous, before we make use of those rights, of which we have been deprived by force for more than three ages, but now restored to us by the political order of human events, to make known to the world the reasons which have emanated from these same occurrences, and which authorize us in the free use we are now about to make of our own sovereignty.

'We do not wish, nevertheless, to begin by alleging the rights inherent in every conquered country, to recover its state of property and independence; we generously forget the long series of ills, injuries, and privations, which the sad right of conquest has indistinctly caused to all the descendants of the discoverers, conquerors, and settlers of these countries, plunged into a worse state by the very same cause that ought to have favoured them; and, drawing a veil over the 300 years of Spanish dominion in America, we will now only present to view the authentic and well-known facts, which ought to have wrested from one world the right over the other, by the inversion, disorder, and conquest, that have already dissolved the Spanish nation.

'This disorder has increased the ills of America, by rendering void its claims and remonstrances, enabling the governors of Spain to insult and oppress this part of the nation, and thus leaving it without the succour and guarantee of the laws.

'It is contrary to order, impossible to the government of Spain, and fatal to the welfare of America, that the latter, possessed of a range of country infinitely more extensive, and a population incomparably more numerous, should depend and be subject to a peninsular corner of the European continent.

'The cessions and abdications at Bayonne, the revolutions of the Escurial and Aranjuez, and the orders of the royal substitute, the Duke of Berg, sent to America, suffice to give virtue to the rights, which till then the Americans had sacrificed to the unity and integrity of the Spanish nation.

'Venezuela was the first to acknowledge, and generously to preserve, this integrity; not to abandon the cause of its brothers, as long as the same retained the least hope of salvation.

'America was called into new existence, since she could, and ought, to take upon herself the charge of her own fate and preservation; as Spain might acknowledge, or not, the rights of a king, who had preferred his own existence to the dignity of the nation over which he governed.

'All the Bourbons concurred with the invalid stipulations of Bayonne, abandoning the country of Spain, against the will of the people;—they violated, disdained, and trampled on the sacred duty they had contracted with the Spaniards of both worlds, when with their blood and treasure they had placed them on the throne, in despite of the house of Austria. By such a conduct they were left disqualified and incapable of governing a free people, whom they delivered up like a flock of slaves.

'The intrusive governments that arrogated to themselves the national representation, took ad-]

[vantage of the dispositions which the good faith, distance, oppression, and ignorance created in the Americans against the new dynasty that had entered Spain by means of force; and, contrary to their own principles, they sustained amongst us the illusion in favour of Ferdinand, in order to devour and harass us with impunity; at most, they promised to us liberty, equality, and fraternity, conveyed in pompous discourses and studied phrases, for the purpose of covering the snare laid by a cunning, useless, and degrading representation.

'As soon as they were dissolved, and had substituted and destroyed amongst themselves the various forms of the government of Spain; and as soon as the imperious law of necessity had dictated to Venezuela the urgency of preserving itself, in order to guard and maintain the rights of her king, and to offer an asylum to her European brethren against the ills that threatened them; their former conduct was divulged: they varied their principles, and gave the appellations of insurrection, perfidy, and ingratitude, to the same acts that had served as models for the governments of Spain; because then was closed to them the gate to the monoply of administration which they meant to perpetuate under the name of an imaginary king.

'Notwithstanding our protests, our moderation, generosity, and the inviolability of our principles, contrary to the wishes of our brethren in Europe, we were declared in a state of rebellion; we were blockaded; war was declared against us; agents were sent amongst us, to excite us one against the other, endeavouring to take away our credit with the other nations of Europe, by imploring their assistance to oppress us.

'Without taking the least notice of our reasons, without presenting them to the impartial judgment of the world, and without any other judges than our own enemies, we are condemned to a mournful excommunication from our brethren; and, to add contempt to calumny, empowered agents are named for us, against our own express will, that in their Cortes they may arbitrarily dispose of our interests, under the influence and force of our enemies.

'In order to crush and suppress the effects of our representation, when they were obliged to grant it to us, we were submitted to a paltry and diminutive scale; and the form of election was subjected to the passive voice of the municipal bodies, degraded by the despotism of the governors; which amounted rather to an insult to our plain dealing and good faith, than as an acknowledgment of our incontestable political importance.

'Always deaf to the cries of justice on our part, the governments of Spain have endeavoured to discredit all our efforts, by declaring as criminal and stamping with infamy, and rewarding with the scaffold and confiscation, every attempt, which at different periods some Americans have made, for the felicity of their country; as was that which lately our own security dictated to us, that we might not be driven into a state of disorder which we foresaw, and hurried to that horrid fate which we are about to remove for ever from us. By means of such atrocious policy they have succeded in making our brethren insensible to our misfortunes; in arming them against us; in erasing from their bosoms the sweet impressions of friendship, of consanguinity, and converting into enemies a part of our own great family.

'At a time that we, faithful to our promises, were sacrificing our security and civil dignity, not to abandon the rights which we generously preserved to Ferdinand of Bourbon, we have seen that, to the relations of force which bound him to the Emperor of the French, he has added the ties of blood and friendship, (by having, as it was supposed, married a relation of Buonaparte,) in consequence of which, even the governments of Spain have already declared their resolution only to acknowledge him conditionally.

'In this mournful alternative we have remained three years, in a state of political indecision and ambiguity, so fatal and dangerous, that this alone would suffice to authorize the resolution, which the faith of our promises and the bonds of fraternity had caused us to defer, till necessity has obliged us to go beyond what we at first proposed, impelled by the hostile and unnatural conduct of the governments of Spain, which have disburdened us of our conditional oath, by which circumstance we are called to the august representation we now exercise.

'But we, who glory in grounding our proceedings on better principles, and not wishing to establish our felicity on the misfortunes of our fellow-beings, do consider and declare as friends, companions of our fate, and participators of our felicity, those who, united to us by the ties of blood, language, and religion, have suffered the same evils in the anterior order of things, provided they acknowledge our absolute independence of the same, and of any other foreign power whatever; that they aid us to sustain it with their lives, fortune, and sentiments; declaring and acknowledging them (as well as to every]

[other nation,) in war enemies, and in peace friends, brothers, and co-patriots.

'In consequence of all these solid, public, and incontestable reasons of policy, which so powerfully urge the necessity of recovering our natural dignity, restored to us by the order of events; and in compliance with the imprescriptible rights enjoyed by nations, to destroy every pact, agreement, or association, which does not answer the purposes for which governments were established; we believe that we cannot, nor ought not, to preserve the bonds which hitherto kept us united to the government of Spain; and that, like all the other nations of the world, we are free, and authorized not to depend on any other authority than our own, and to take amongst the powers of the earth the place of equality which the Supreme Being and Nature assign to us, and to which we are called by the succession of human events, and urged by our own good and utility.

'Notwitstanding we are aware of the difficulties that attend, and the obligations imposed upon us, by the rank we are about to take in the political order of the world; as well as the powerful influence of forms and habitudes, to which unfortunately we have been accustomed; we at the same time know, that the shameful submission to them, when we can throw them off, would be still more ignominious for us, and more fatal to our posterity, than our long and painful slavery; and that it now becomes an indispensable duty to provide for own preservation, security, and felicity, by essentially varying all the forms of our former constitution.

'In consequence whereof, considering, by the reasons thus alleged, that we have satisfied the respect which we owe to the opinions of the human race, and the dignity of other nations, in the number of whom we are about to enter, and on whose communication and friendship we rely: We, the representatives of the United Provinces of Venezuela, calling on the Supreme Being to witness the justice of our proceedings and the rectitude of our intentions, do implore his divine and celestial help; and ratifying, at the moment in which we are born to the dignity which his Providence restores to us, the desire we have of living and dying free, and of believing and defending the holy Catholic and Apostolic Religion of Jesus Christ.—We, in the name and by the will and authority which we hold from the virtuous people of Venezuela, DO therefore declare solemnly to the world, that its United Provinces are, and ought to be, from this day, by act and right, Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and that they are absolved from every submission and dependence on the throne of Spain, or on those who do, or may call themselves its agents and representatives; and that a free and independent state, thus constituted, has full power to take that form of government which may be conformable to the general will of the people, to declare war, make peace, form alliances, regulate treaties of commerce, limits, and navigation; and to do and transact every act, in like manner as other free and independent states. And that this, our solemn declaration, may be held valid, firm, and durable, we hereby mutually bind each province to the other, and pledge our lives, fortunes, and the sacred tie of our national honour. Done in the Federal Palace of Caracas; signed by our own hands, sealed with the great Provisional Seal of the Confederation, and countersigned by the Secretary of Congress, this 5th day of July, 1811, the first of our independence.—For the Province of Caracas, Isidoro Antonio Lopez Mendez, deputy of the City of Caracas.—Juan German Roscio, for the district of the Town of Calabozo.—Felipe Fermin Paul, for the district of San Sebastian.—Francisco Xavier Uztariz, for the district of San Sebastian.—Nicolas De Castro, deputy for Caracas.—Juan Antonio Rodriguez Dominguez, president, and deputy for Nutrias in Barinas.—Luis Ignacio Mendoza, vice president, deputy of Obispos in Barinas.—Fernando de Peñalver, deputy for Valencia.—Gabriel Perez de Pagola, deputy of Ospino.—Salvador Delgado, deputy for Nirgua.—The Marquis del Toro, deputy for the City of Tocuyo.—Juan Antonio Dias Argote, deputy for the Town of Cura.—Gabriel de Ponte, deputy for Caracas.—Juan Jozé Maya, deputy of San Felipe.—Luis Jozé de Cazorla, deputy of Valencia.—Dr. Jozé Vicente Unda, deputy of Guanare.—Francisco Xavier Yanes, deputy of Araure.—Fernando Toro, deputy of Caracas.—Martin Tovar Ponte, deputy of San Sebastian.—Juan Toro, deputy of Valencia.—José Angel de Alamo, deputy for Baraquisimeto.—Francisco Hernandez, deputy for San Carlos.—Lino De Clemente, deputy of Caracas.—For the Province of Cumana, Francisco Xavier de Mayz, deputy for the capital.—Jozé Gabriel de Alcalà, deputy for ditto.—Juan Bermudez, deputy for the South.—Mariano de la Cova, deputy for the North.—For Barcelona, Francisco Miranda, deputy of Pao.—Francisco Policarpo Ortiz, deputy for San Diego.—For Barinas, Juan Nepomuceno de Quintana, deputy for Achaguas.—Ignacio Fernandez, deputy for the capital of Barinas.—Ignacio Ramon Briceño,]

[representative of Pedraza.—Jozé de Sata y Bussy, deputy for San Fernando de Apure.—Jozé Luis Crabrera, deputy for Guanarito.—Ramon Ignacio Mendez, deputy for Guasdualito.—Manuel Palacio, deputy for Mijagual.—For Margarita, Manuel Placido Maneyro.—For Merida, Antonio Nicolas Briceño, deputy for Merida.—Manuel Vincente de Maya, deputy for La Grita.—For Truxillo, Juan Pablo Pacheco.—For the Town of Aragua, in the Province of Barcelona, Jozé Maria Ramirez. (Seal.) Legalised.—Francisco Isnardy, Secretary.

'DECREE OF THE SUPREME EXECUTIVE POWER.

Federal Palace of Caracas, July 8, 1811.

'For the Confederation of Venezuela, the Executive Power ordains, that the antecedent Act be published, executed, and authorized by the Seal of the State and Confederation.

Christoval de Mendoza, president,
Juan de Escalona,
Baltazur Padron,
Miguel Jose Sanz, secretary of state.
Carlos Machado, chancellor,
Joze Thomas Santana, secretary of decrees.
(L. S.)

'4. *Articles comprehended in the Declaration of the Legislative Session, July* 1, 1811.

ART. XXV.

'All foreigners of whatever nation, will be received in the province of Caracas.

XXVI.

'The persons and properties of foreigners, shall enjoy the same security as those of the other citizens, provided they acknowledge the sovereignty and independence, and respect the catholic religion, the only one in this country.

XXVII.

'The foreigners who reside in the province of Caracas, being naturalized, and having the necessary property, shall enjoy all the rights of citizens.

5. *Invitation to Settlers.*

'The immense quantity of lands in the province of Caracas, the abundance of perpetual streams which fertilize them, the diversity of productions and their richness, offer to the industrious man the greatest advantages in agriculture. The geographical situation of a great extent of coast opposite the Antilles and other islands, the great consumption of the States of Venezuela, confederated with those of Cundinamarca or Santa-Fé, open and facilitate a commerce the most advantageous in the universe. The peaceable character of the inhabitants; the mildness of their behaviour, the regard they shew to foreigners; and lastly, the mildness of the climate, it being a perpetual spring, invite persons to settle in the province of Caracas, as cultivators, artisans, or merchants. The government interested in protecting all, will give lands to any person who may wish to cultivate them: and will secure, in their respective professions, all those who dedicate themselves to commerce, industry, and the arts; it will alone prosecute and expel the turbulent and the idle, who apply themselves to disturbing the tranquillity and peace of those who live occupied. The industrious and peaceable man will enjoy in Venezuela the protection of government and the estimation of the people.

'And it is also to be observed, that notwithstanding the importation of negroes is prohibited in Venezuela, this does not include the foreigners who may come with their slaves, to make agricultural establishments, or to pursue any art or profession useful and advantageous to the state.

Michael Joseph Sanz,
Secretary of State.

'II. FEDERAL CONSTITUTION,

FOR THE STATES OF VENEZUELA,

'*Made by the Representatives for Margarita, Merida, Cumanà, Varinas, Barcelona, Truxillo, and Caracas, in General Congress assembled.*

'In the Name of the All-powerful God,

'WE the people of the States of Venezuela, acting from our own soverignty, and anxious to establish amongst ourselves the best possible administration of justice, to provide for the general good, to secure the tranquillity of the interior, to make provision in common for our exterior defence, to sustain our political liberty and independence, to preserve pure and untouched, the sacred religion of our ancestors, to secure and perpetuate to our posterity the enjoyment of these goods, and to mutually bind ourselves together, by the most unalterable union and sincere friendship, have resolved solemnly to confederate together, in order to form and establish the following constitution, by which the said States are in future to be governed and administered.

'*Preliminary Basis of the Federate Compact, which is to constitute the general authority of the Confederation.*

'Every province, whose individual sovereignty]

[shall not have been expressly delegated by the Federal Compact to the general authority of the Confederation, shall at the same time that it composes the same confederation, preserve its own sovereignty, liberty, and independence; and in the exercise thereof shall have the exclusive right of regulating its own territorial government and administration, under such laws as it shall deem fit, provided they are not such as are comprehended in this constitution, and are not opposed or prejudicial to the Federate Compacts, thereby established. The same rights shall be enjoyed by all those districts which by division of the present union, or by posterior aggregation thereto, shall hereafter form part of this confederation, whenever the general Congress assembled shall declare them entitled to such representation, or they obtain the same by that means, or form, which the latter may establish for similar cases, when not assembled.

'To render effective the mutual guarantee and security entered into by the States amongst themselves, to preserve their civil liberty, their political independence, and their religious worship, is the first and most sacred of the powers of the confederation, in whom exclusively resides the national representation. By the same it is charged with all foreign relations—with the common and general defence of the Confederate States—with the preservation of public peace, from internal commotions or exterior attacks—the regulating of exterior trade, and of the States amongst themselves—the raising and maintaining armies, whenever they may be necessary to preserve the liberty, integrity, and independence of the nation—to build and equip vessels of war—to make and confirm treaties and alliances with other nations—to declare war and make peace—to impose the necessary taxes for these purposes, or to adopt other measures that may tend to the security, tranquillity, and common felicity, together with the full and absolute power to enact general laws for the union, to judge and to cause to be fulfilled, whatever by the same may be resolved and decreed.

'The exercise of this authority confided to the confederation, can at no time be united in its different functions. The supreme power is to be divided into legislative, executive, and judicial, and confided to distinct bodies, independent of each other, as well as in their respective faculties. The persons who may be named to exercise them, shall inviolably subject themselves to the manner and rules, which in this constitution may be prescribed to them, for the administration and fulfilment of their charges.

'CHAP. I.—*Of Religion.*

'1. The Catholic, Apostolic, and Roman religion, is also that of the State, and the only and exclusive one of the inhabitants of Venezuela. Its protection, conservation, purity, and inviolability, shall be one of the first duties of the national representation, who shall not, at any time, allow within the limits of the confederation, any public or private worship or doctrine, contrary to that of Jesus Christ.

'2. The relations, which in consequence of the new political order, are to be entered upon between Venezuela and the apostolical see, shall also be vested in the confederation, as well as those which may be agitated with the present diocesan prelates, in the mean time that direct intercourse cannot be had with the pontifical authority.

'CHAP. II.—*Of the Legislative Power.*

'SEC. I.—DIVISIONS, LIMITS, AND FUNCTIONS OF THIS POWER.

'3. The General Congress of Venezuela shall be divided into a House of Representatives and a Senate, to which two bodies is confided all the legislative power, established by the present constitution.

'4. In either of them any law may originate, and each respectively may propose to the other amendments, alterations, or additions, or refuse its consent to the law proposed, by an absolute negative.

'5. The laws relating to contributions, taxes, and imposts, are excepted from this law. These can only originate in the House of Representatives, the ordinary right of adding thereto, altering or refusing them, being left to the Senate.

'6. When the proposal of a law or a bill has been admitted, conformably to the rules of debate prescribed to themselves by the two houses, it shall undergo three different discussions in distinct sessions, with the interval of a day at least between each, without which it shall not be lawful to pass the house.

'7. Urgent bills are excepted from these forms, but in order that this point may be established, the urgency is to be discussed and previously declared in each of the two houses.

'8. No bill rejected by one of them can be repeated till after the lapse of one year, but others may be made containing part of those rejected.]

[‘ 9. No project, law, or bill, constitutionally accepted, discussed, and passed in both Houses, shall be considered as a law of the State, till it has been presented to the Executive body, and by it signed. If the latter should withhold its assent, the projected bill, with such amendments as the Executive may suggest, shall be returned to the House where it originated, wherein due note shall be taken of such amendments on the journals, they proceeding afresh to examine the case, which if again approved by a plurality of two thirds, the same shall, under similar forms, pass on to the other House, wherein the same approbation being obtained, the bill from that instant shall have the full force of a law. In all these cases, the votes of the Houses shall be expressed by yea and nay, and a register kept of the names of those who voted for or against the bill.

‘ 10. If the Executive should not return the bill to the House whence it originated, in the term of ten days after its receipt, exclusive of holidays, the same shall have the full force of law, and shall be constitutionally promulgated as such: but if, in consequence of summons, suspension, or recess of Congress, the bill cannot have been returned before the period fixed, it shall remain without effect, unless the Executive Power shall resolve on approving the same, without any alterations or additions; but in case these should be added, the bill, together with the additions thereto, shall be laid before the Houses in the next session subsequent to the period expired.

‘ 11. All other resolutions, decrees, opinions, and acts of both Houses, (excepting those of summons) shall likewise be referred to the Executive Power in order to receive its assent, before they can be carried into full effect. In case the latter should refuse such assent, they shall again pass through the forms prescribed for the enaction of laws, and being in like manner newly confirmed, they are to be carried into execution. The laws, decrees, opinions, acts, and resolutions, which may be held as urgent, are also to be subject to this rule, but the Executive Power is in this case, to state its objections respecting the urgency, as well as the substance of any law, within the space of two days after its receipt, in default of which, the same shall be considered as approved by it.

‘ 12. The form of the draft or sketch under which the laws, acts, decrees, and resolutions are to pass from one house to the other, as well as to the Executive, shall be a preamble therein contained, with a minute of the day of the session on which the subject was discussed in each house, the date of the respective resolutions, a statement of the urgency in case there is any, as well as an exposition of the reasons and foundations which have given rise to the resolution. Whenever any of these requisites are omitted, the act shall be returned within two days to the House wherein the omission has been noted, or to that where the same originated, if it has occurred in both.

‘ 13. These requisites shall not accompany the law in its promulgation. The act shall be drawn out in a clear, simple, precise, and uniform manner, without any thing more than a plain heading, explanatory of its contents, with the name of the law, act, or decree, the dispositive part of the same law being preceded by the following words, “ The Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of Venezuela, in Congress assembled, have decreed, &c.” then is to follow the decretive part of the same. These forms can be varied, if circumstances and the assent of the provinces that may hereafter be annexed to this confederation, should make it requisite.

‘ Sect. II.—Election of the House of Representatives.

‘ 14. Those who compose the House of Representatives are to be named by the popular electors of each province, to serve in this charge during the space of four years; and the total number respectively shall be renewed every two years, in the proportion of one half, without any being allowed to be re-elected immediately.

‘ 15. No one can be elected under the age of 25, and if he has not been for five years, immediately previous to his election, a citizen of the Confederation of Venezuela, nor unless he enjoys property of some nature therein.

‘ 16. The requisite of previous residence above required for the representatives, does not exclude those who may have been absent in the service of the State, nor those who may have been abroad under permission of the government, on their own affairs, if their absence has not exceeded three years, nor the natives of Venezuela, who, having been out of the country before, had returned, and were present at the declaration of absolute independence, and have acknowledged and sworn to the same.

‘ 17. The population of the provinces shall determine the number of the representatives belonging to each, at the rate of one for each 20,000 souls of all classes, sexes, and ages. For the present, the civil census lately made shall serve for the calculation; but, in future, the same shall be renewed every five years, and if, after the]

[divisions of 20,000 have been made, there should result any residue exceeding 10,000, a representative shall be elected for the same.

‘ 18. This proportion of one for every 20,000, shall remain as the law for the representation, till the number of the representatives reaches 70, when, notwithstanding the population may have increased, the number shall nevertheless not be enlarged, but the proportion shall be raised, till a representative shall be found to correspond to each 30,000 souls. In this state is the proportion of one for every 30,000 to continue, till the number of representatives reaches 100, and then, as in the former case, the proportion shall be raised to 40,000 for one, till the number, by the progressive increase of population, has reached 200, in which case it shall be regulated in such manner, that the rule of proportion does not give more than one for each 50,000 souls.

‘ 19. When, in consequence of death, resignation, or any other cause, the seat of a representative shall be vacated, it shall be filled by the person who, in the last election, had obtained the second majority of votes, and he shall be considered as elected to serve during all the time that remained for the first; and if he should have served less than a year, it shall not be held as an obstacle to his obtaining a seat at the next election.

‘ 20. The elections shall be conducted with the same uniformity throughout the whole territory of the Confederation, and in the following manner.

‘ 21. The first day of November of every two years, the voters shall collect in all the parishes of the State, in order to choose freely and voluntarily the parochial electors, who are to name the representative or representatives, which, for the next two succeeding years, correspond to the province.

‘ 22. Each 1000 souls, or each parish, notwithstanding it does not reach that amount of population, shall have one elector, and the nomination of these being effected, the parochial meeting shall be dissolved, and the electors shall, without fail, be collected, November 15, in the city or chief town of the district, in order there to name the representatives.

‘ 23. The results of the electoral meetings shall be immediately referred, for the present, to the provincial government, and when this is popularly reformed, to the President of the Senate, or of the first House of the Legislative Body of the same, which in every province is to be in session at the beginning of December.

‘ 24. The chief of the present government, or the President of the Senate, when this is established, shall open, in the presence of the provincial legislature for that purpose assembled, the results of the polls which may have been forwarded from the districts, in order to count the votes. Those shall be considered as elected to serve as representatives, who may have united in themselves the greatest number of the electors chosen, and, in case the majorities should be equal between two or more persons, the legislature shall choose between them; but, if no one should be found to have received half of the votes, the legislature shall then choose amongst those who may have the greatest number, a third or double quantity of representatives more than necessary to serve for the province, in order again to make amongst them the definitive choice. For this election any kind of majority may suffice, by adding to the votes of the legislature those which each may have obtained from the electoral meetings of the chief towns. In case of a parity of votes in the definitive election of the legislature, the vote of the President shall decide.

‘ 25. In the meantime that the legislatures of the provinces are not organized constitutionally and with uniformity, their present governments are to proceed in the regulations above specified, by assembling in a place determined, all their members in union with those of the municipalities of the capital, and 12 persons of known property, previously elected by the said municipalities.

‘ 26. Every freeman shall have the right of voting in the parochial meetings, if to this quality he adds that of being a citizen of Venezuela, and resident in the parish or town where he votes: further, if he is aged 21 years and unmarried, and if married and settled, even if he should be under that age, and possessed of a free property to the value of 600 dollars in the chief towns of the province when unmarried, and of 400 dollars married, although the same belongs to the wife, or of 400 in the other towns in the first case, and 200 in the second. Also, if he holds any office or public testimony of the exercise of any science, or liberal and mechanic art, or if he is the owner of or renter of seed lands, or cattle, provided the produce amounts to the respective sums stipulated for married and single persons.

‘ 27. Those excluded from this right are the lunatic, deaf and dumb, bankrupts, debtors to public property after the expiration of the periods fixed for payment, foreigners, persons without fixed residence, public and notorious vagrants,]

[persons who may have been subject to any infamy not wiped away by law, those under criminal prosecution, and married persons not cohabiting with their wives without legal motives.

'28. Besides the above stated qualities requisite for the parish voters, those who are entitled to vote in the electoral meetings, are to be residents of the district where they give suffrage, and to possess a free property to the value of 6000 dollars in the capital of Caracas, if unmarried; and of 4000 if married, which amount of property in the other capitals, cities, and towns, shall be 4000 for unmarried persons, and 3000 for those married.

'29. The same rights are also granted to public functionaries enjoying salaries from the State, provided these are equal to 300 dollars per year; all such shall vote in the parochial meetings, and in the electoral ones if their salaries reach 1000. All such are nevertheless disqualified from being members of the Houses of Representatives and Senate, as long as they retain the exercise of their functions, and enjoy their respective salaries during the time of their representation.

'30. It is the exclusive and sole right of the respective municipalities to convene, in conformity to the constitution, primary and electoral meetings, and all others which may be resolved on by the government of each province.

'31. Any one of its members, a judge, or a distinguished personage in the towns, can by them be authorized to preside in, and to close the parochial meetings, but electoral meetings shall be presided by a justice of the peace, and the acts thereof shall be legalized by the municipal notary.

'32. If there should be any omission on the part of the municipalities to convene these meetings in due time, the citizens can, in that case, assemble on the days assigned by the constitution for that purpose, and do what the municipality has not done; but with order, tranquillity, and moderation; they are moreover authorized to communicate the results of the meetings after their dissolution, to the respective provincial governments.

'33. The use of this faculty, as well on the part of the municipalities as on that of the citizens, excepting in the cases and times fixed by the constitution, shall be held as a transgression against the public security, and a treason against the laws of the State; nor shall the functions of these meetings exceed the nomination of electors, that of representatives to the General Congress, or to the respective provincial legislature, nor shall they be allowed to transact any other business that is not assigned them by the constitution.

'34. The qualifications of property shall be left in charge of the respective municipalities, who shall, at all times, keep a civil register of the citizens authorized to vote in the parochial meetings, as well as of those capable of being returned as electors for the district, under the form that may be established by the respective provincial constitutions.

'35. The want at present experienced of a civil register, ordained by the above article, in order to establish the qualifications of the citizens, may be supplied by an authority conferred by the municipal bodies on those they may name to preside in the primary or parochial meetings, establishing a census in each parish, founded on the late one drawn up for the present Congress, or it may be done by the ecclesiastical body authorized by the curate or his deputy, together with four respectable citizens, housekeepers and landholders in the same town, who, under oath, shall testify that those comprehended in the list, possess the qualities requisite for voters or for electors.

'36. The total population of the parish being by this means established, the number of electors that may correspond to the same will be ascertained; a list is also to be made out of the citizens found therein with the right of vote, as well as another of those who may be qualified to serve as electors at the meetings held for that purpose.

'37. These three lists are to be carried by the commissioner to the primary or parochial meetings, that the voters, in conformity thereto, may proceed to name out of the last list the elector or electors corresponding to that parish.

'38. This being done, the whole shall be laid before the municipal body by the commissioner, that the same may serve to form a provincial civil register, in the meantime, and till Congress shall establish another form.

'39. The parochial and electoral elections shall be public, as becomes a free and virtuous people, and conducted in the following manner.

'40. The primary electors or parish voters shall carry their written or verbal votes, in person, to the magistrate of the district, or to the judge who may be named within the term of eight days from that on which the polling is opened, and on November 1, the votes shall be added up in presence of the said judge, and six respectable persons of the parish, and a statement of the votes]

[and results be fixed on the doors of the parish church.

'41. In the electoral meetings each elector shall give his vote on a signed ticket, or verbally to the President of the meeting, who shall cause the same to be entered down on the list by the Secretary, in presence of two witnesses. The votes being thus privately collected, the additions thereof shall be made in public, and a list in alphabetical order made out, when the votes shall be read aloud, with the names of each elector.

'42. The doubts or difficulties that may arise in the primary or electoral meetings respecting qualifications or forms, in the first shall be decided by the President and his associate judges, and in the second by the meeting itself; but from both there can be a definitive appeal to the provincial legislature, without, in the meantime, the effect of the respective elections being suspended.

'43. The House of Representatives on opening the session shall elect, for the time of its duration, a President and Vice-President out of its own members, who can be changed in case of prorogation or extraordinary summons: it shall also name out of the House a Secretary and the other officers it may judge necessary to perform the various duties; it being, in like manner, authorized to fix the salaries and emoluments which the said functionaries are to receive.

'44. All persons employed under the Confederation are subject to the inspection of the House of Representatives in the discharge of their duties; and by the same they are to be accused before the Senate in all cases of treason, collusion, or malversation; and the latter shall admit, hear, examine, and judge such accusations, without their being able to be submitted to their judgment through any other organ than that of the said House, to whom exclusively this right belongs.

'Sect. III.—Election of Senators.

'45. The Senate of the Confederation shall, for the present, be composed of a number of individuals, whose proportion shall not exceed a third, and shall not be less than a fifth part of the number of representatives; that is, when the latter exceed 100, their proportion shall then be between the fourth and fifth part, and when 200, between that of a fifth and sixth.

'46. This calculation at present indicates, that, for each province, there is to be one senator for every 20,000 souls of all conditions, classes, and ages, according to the census of the country now in force; but each province shall nevertheless name one, although its population does not reach the amount specified; as well as the others, which after deducting the quota or quotas of 70,000, may have left a residuum of 30,000 souls.

'47. The time limited for the functions of a senator shall be six years, and every two years the body shall be renewed, in the proportion of two-thirds; this change devolving in the first instance on those provinces which may have sent up the greatest number, and thus successively, in such manner that none exceed the six years to which they are limited.

'48. The first election, and those which may be made in the successive years in rotation, shall be conducted by the provincial legislature, in the manner which they themselves may prescribe, but with the following conditions.

'49. The Senator elect shall be aged 30 years, have been 10 years a citizen and resident in the territory of Venezuela immediately preceding his election, with the exception stated in article 16, and he shall possess therein a clear property worth 6000 dollars.

'50. The Senate shall elect out of the House a Secretary and the other functionaries required, and shall be allowed to assign salaries, advancement, and emoluments for them, as well as a President and Vice-President, as stated in article 43, for the House of Representatives.

'51. When by death, resignation, or any other cause, the place of a Senator should be vacated, and this during the recess of the provincial legislature, to whom it belongs to fill up the vacancy, the executive power of the same shall be authorized to name a temporary substitute to serve till the next meeting of the legislature, when a fresh member shall be provided.

'Sect. IV.—Functions and Faculties of the Senate.

'52. The Senate has all the natural and incidental power belonging to a court of justice, to admit, hear, judge, and sentence any of the principal functionaries in the service of the Confederation, who may have been accused by the House of Representatives, of felony, misbehaviour, usurpation, or corruption in the use of their functions, abiding therein by the evidence produced, and according to justice in such proceedings, having previously taken a special oath on the Holy Evangelists before the case is opened.

'53. The Senate has also power to judge and sentence any other of the inferior functionaries, when, having taken cognizance of their defaults]

[or crimes, there has been noted any omission on the part of their chiefs to do it, but the accusation must, in the first instance, proceed from the lower House.

'54. They shall immediately transmit a legal copy of the indictment to the accused, fixing a period and place for his appearance and to make answer; such minister or commissioner being used for this purpose, as the House may judge proper, and consideration being also had to the distance at which the accused may reside, and the nature of the judgment he is about to undergo.

'55. As soon as the citation and summons of the Senate to the accused have been made, and he has by virtue thereof appeared, the witnesses he may bring forward shall be freely heard, and the proofs examined, as well as the defence he may make, either personally or by council; but if by default or omission he should fail to appear, the Senate shall then proceed to examine the charges and proofs there may be against him, and shall pronounce judgment as valid and effective, as if the accused had appeared and answered to his indictment.

'56. In these cases, if there is no counsellor in the body of the Senate, the latter is in that case to call in one of the members of the high Court of Justice to direct the proceedings, or any other counsellor of respectability who may possess their confidence; but to any such in the matter, a consultive voice only is to be granted.

'57. In order that judgments pronounced by the Senate, in such cases, should have their due effect and validity, there shall necessarily be a concurrence of two-third parts of the votes of the Senators, of whom there shall be present a sufficient number to render the session constitutional.

'58. These judgments shall have no other effect than to deprive the accused of his place, in consequence of the facts that may be established by the examination, declaring him incapable of again receiving any honourable or lucrative charge under the Confederation; but without this exempting him from being ulteriorly prosecuted, judged, and sentenced by the competent courts of justice.

'SECT. V.—ECONOMICAL AND PREROGATIVE FUNCTIONS COMMON TO BOTH HOUSES.

'59. The qualifications for elections, the requisites, and admission of their respective members, shall devolve as a particular privilege on each House, as well as the solution of any doubts that may arise respecting the same. In the same manner they are authorized to fix what number of members present may render the session constitutional, and form a quorum; and, in all cases, the number met, notwithstanding it is the smallest, may compel those who have not joined, under the penalties they may think fit to establish.

'60. The President of each House shall always be the channel through which all these coactive measures are executed, as well as all other extraordinary summons that circumstances may require.

'61. The mode of proceeding in both Houses in their sessions, debates, and resolutions shall be established by themselves, and under such rules they are authorized to punish any of their members who may infringe them, or who may in any other manner incur blame, or make himself liable to the penalties agreed on, even to the expelling him from amongst themselves, whenever (the two-third parts of the whole members being present) it should be so unanimously decided by two-thirds of those in session.

'62. Both Houses shall enjoy the exclusive right of police within the places of their own sessions, and they shall have at their immediate orders a national guard, capable of maintaining the decorum of their representation, quiet, order, and the freedom of their resolutions.

'63. In the exercise of this right they may also punish with arrest, not to exceed 30 days, any individual whatever, who, in a disorderly manner or out of contempt, should behave disrespectfully in their presence, or threaten in any manner to do any act against the House, or the person or property of any of the members during the session, or in going to or coming from the same, for any thing they may have said or done in the debates, or who may hinder or disturb their deliberations, or obstruct or detain the officers or functionaries of the Houses in the execution of their orders; who may assault or detain any witness or person cited and waited for by either of the Houses, or who may set at liberty any person detained by them, knowing and fully convinced they were such.

'64. The proceedings of each House shall be formally entered on daily registers, on which shall be transcribed the debates and resolutions; those shall be published, which are not intended to be kept secret, according to the opinion of each House; and whenever it is claimed by a fifth part of the numbers present, the names of each individual, as they have voted on any motion or resolution, are to be expressed at full length.

'65. Neither of the Houses, whilst in session,]

[shall be allowed to adjourn for more than three days, without the consent of the other, nor be summoned or cited to meet in any other place than that destined for the meeting of both, without the same consent being previously obtained.

'66. The representative members, as well as the Senators, shall receive for their services that remuneration which the law may assign them out of the public funds of the Confederation, allowances being also granted by Congress, for the time and distance of coming from their homes to the place of session, as well as for returning when the House breaks up.

'SECT. VI.—TIME, PLACE, AND DURATION OF THE LEGISLATIVE SESSIONS OF BOTH HOUSES.

'67. On January 15, in every year, the Congress shall be opened in the Federal city, (originally Caracas, now Valencia), which is fixed by a particular law, and which can never be the capital of any province, and its sessions shall not exceed the ordinary term of one month; but if it should be thought necessary extraordinarily to prorogue the House, an express resolution is to precede naming a definitive period, which is not to exceed a month; when another prorogation may take place in the same manner; and, if before any of these periods the business brought before the House is finished, the session may then be ended.

'68. During the sessions, the Houses may be dissolved and summoned for another time and place, expressly and previously fixed upon; and the Executive Power shall have no other intervention in these resolutions, excepting that of naming, in case of disagreement between the Houses, respecting the time and place, a term that does not exceed the greatest period agitated in the disputes for assembling in the same place.

'69. The personal immunity of the Representatives of the People and Senators, in every case, excepting such as are specified in Article 61, and those of treason and disturbance of the public peace, is confined to their not being liable to arrest, during the time they hold their Legislative functions, and that which they may expend in going to or coming from their homes to attend the sittings, and their not being answerable for their sentiments and opinions, but in the House where the same have been expressed.

'70. None of them, during the time for which they have been elected, and, notwithstanding they are not in the immediate exercise of their functions, shall be allowed to accept of any office or civil charge that may have been created or increased in salary, or attended with remuneration, during the time of their legislative authority.

'SECT. VII.—SPECIAL ATTRIBUTES OF THE LEGISLATIVE POWER.

'71. The Congress shall have full power and authority to raise and maintain armies for the common defence, and to diminish them as may be deemed necessary; to build, equip, and maintain a national navy; to form regulations and laws for the government; administration and discipline of the said land and sea forces; to call out the militia of all the provinces, or part of them, when the execution of the laws of the union, and the necessity of repressing insurrections and repelling invasions, may make it requisite; to regulate the organization, arming, and discipline of the said militia, as well as the government and administration of that part thereof, employed in the service of the State; the nomination of the respective officers being left to the provinces, to be done in the manner prescribed by their particular constitutions, as well as the power of directing, assembling, and teaching the discipline ordained by Congress—to establish and collect all kinds of taxes, duties, and contributions, that may be necessary to maintain armies and squadrons, whenever the defence, common security, and general good of the State may require it; provided that the said contributions are uniformly imposed and levied throughout the whole Confederation—to contract debts by means of loans of money on the credit of the State—to regulate trade with foreign nations, determining the proportions of contributions to be exacted from the commercial bodies, as well as the repayment or expenditure of the proceeds of the same, in cases of need, and also to regulate the trade of the provinces between themselves—to dispose, in an absolute manner, of the monopoly of raw and prepared tobacco, *(mo y chimo)* import and export duties, and to regulate and direct the expenditure and the collection of the revenue that is to enter into the national treasury, as a privileged income belonging to the Confederation, and the most proper to serve for its defence and common security—to coin and stamp money—determine its value, as well as that of foreign monies; introduce paper money, if necessary, and to fix uniformly the weights and measures throughout the whole extent of the Confederation; to regulate and establish posts, and general mails throughout the State, and assign the expenses of postage, as well as to]

[trace the main roads, leaving to the charge and resolutions of the provinces the cross roads, necessary for the communication of the inland towns and general conveyances—to declare war and make peace, to grant at all times letters of marque and reprisal, to establish regulations for captures by sea and land, as well to examine and decide on their legality, as to determine in what manner they are to be divided and laid out—to make laws respecting the manner of judging and punishing piracies, and all crimes committed on the high seas, against the rights of nations—to institute inferior tribunals, to take cognizance of all matters belonging to the Confederation, throughout the whole of the State, under the authority and jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of Justice, and to name the subaltern agents of the Executive power, in those parts not expressed in this Constitution—to establish a permanent and uniform manner of naturalization, in all the provinces of the union, as well as bankrupt laws —to make laws for the punishment of forgers of public deeds, and of the current money of the State—to exercise an exclusive right of legislating in all cases, respecting all kinds of matters, relating to legislative, federal, or provincial concerns, in that place where, by consent of the Representatives of the people, who at present compose, or may be hereafter united to the Confederation, it may be determined ultimately to fix the residence of the Federal government, to examine all the laws which may be made by provincial Legislatures, and to state whether they are, or are not opposed to the authority of the onfederation, and to make all the laws and regulations which may be necessary and proper, to carry into execution the preceding power, as well as all the others granted by this Constitution, to the government of the United States.

'CHAP. III.—*Of the Executive Power.*

'SECT. I.—OF ITS NATURE, QUALITIES, AND DURATION.

'72. The Executive constitutional power shall reside in the Federal city, lodged in three individuals popularly elected, and those who are thus chosen are to have the following qualities.

'73. They shall have been born on the Columbian Continent, or in the islands formerly designated Spanish America, and they shall have resided in the territory of the union 10 years, immediately preceding their election, with the exceptions stipulated in Art. 16, respecting the residence requisite for Representatives, and they shall be possessed of some free property.

'74. Natives of Spain and of the Canary Islands, are not excluded from this election, provided they were in Venezuela at the time of declaring her political independence; that they acknowledged, swore allegiance thereto, and helped to sustain it, and who are besides, possessed of the property, and can prove the number of years of residence prescribed in the above article.

'75. The duration of their functions shall be for four years, at the expiration of which the three individuals composing the Executive Power, shall be replaced in the same manner they were elected.

'SECT. II.—ELECTION OF THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

'76. As soon as the electoral meetings have assembled, on November 15, every four years, as stipulated by Art. 22, for the nomination of Representatives, and that this has been effected, the following day, the same electors shall proceed to give their votes in writing, or verbally, for the persons who are to compose the Federal Executive Power.

'77. Each elector shall name three persons, of whom one at least shall be a resident of another province, and not of that in which he votes.

'78. The voting being ended, and the examination and results thereof being calculated, and publicly read, in the same manner as in the election of the Representatives, the lists shall then be made out, particularising the persons who may have voted for the members of the Executive Power, with a statement of the number of votes each has obtained.

'79. These lists shall be signed, and certified by the President, Electors, and Secretary of the respective meetings, and shall be then remitted, inclosed and sealed, to the President for the time being of the Senate of the Confederation.

'80. When he has received the same, he shall open the whole of them in the presence of the Senate, and of the House of Representatives, who shall be assembled together to count the votes.

'81. Those persons who may have received the greatest number of votes to be members of the Executive Power, shall be considered as elected, if that same number constitutes the three]

[majorities, of the total of the electors present in the whole meetings of the State, but if no person shall have received this decided majority, the nine persons shall then be taken, who may have obtained the greatest number of votes, of whom by ballot, the House of Representatives shall choose three to compose the Executive Power, and those shall be held as duly elected, who have in their favour a majority of one half of the members of the House present at the election.

'82. If no one has obtained this majority, the Secretary shall choose by ballot three of the six persons who may have obtained most votes in the House, and those shall be considered as elected who may have got most votes in the Senate. All these operations of the Houses shall be complied with in all cases in which either one, two, or the whole three may not have obtained an absolute majority, but in the first and second instance, a double or triple number is to be chosen to that designated for the whole three, and so in proportion.

'83. A descendant in a direct line, brothers, an uncle, nephew, cousins, and those allied to each other by affinity in the above-mentioned degrees, cannot at the same time be members of the Executive Power; and in case of the election of two relations in the degrees above stated, he shall be excluded who has obtained the lowest number of votes, and in case of an equality, lots shall decide the exclusion.

'84. In summing up the votes of both Houses, the person who shall have obtained the majority next to the three requisite to form the Executive Power, shall be considered as elected as a substitute in case of absence, sickness, death, resignation, or removal of any of the members, and if two should obtain a parity of votes, the House shall cast lots which is to serve in the above cases.

'85. When for the causes above stated, any of the members of the Executive Power should be wanting, and the substitution as stipulated in the above article should take place, it shall be understood that he is legally elected as substitute, who has obtained in the elections the next majority of votes, which shall be equally valid for those who may follow, in case of successive vacancies.

'Sect. III.—Attributes of the Executive Power.

'86. The Executive Power throughout the whole Confederation, shall have the supreme command of the land and sea force, and of the national militia when in the service of the State.

'87. It is authorized to ask, and all the principal officers of the State in every branch are obliged to give, every information the former may require, in writing or verbally, relating generally to the good administration of the State, and to the discharge of the respective trusts lodged with the public functionaries of every class.

'88. In favour of, and in behalf of humanity, it shall have power to pardon and mitigate the punishment, notwithstanding it be capital, of State crimes, but not in others; but previously consulting the judicial power, who is to be made acquainted with the motives of political convenience, which induce the Executive to do it; and the pardon or change of punishment are only to take place, when the same are in conformity to the opinions of the judges who have sat on the trial.

'89. Only in cases of evident and notorious injustice, such as may be attended with irreparable injury, is the Executive allowed to reject and over-rule the opinion of the Judicial power; but when the former is persuaded that these opinions are contrary to law, the objections are to be stated by way of consultation to the Senate when assembled, or to the Commissioners, which the latter may, at its recess, have left authorized to act in similar cases.

'90. The Senate or its delegates in these consultations shall be as judges, and pronounce thereon definitively, declaring whether or not the negative of the Executive is to counteract the fulfilment of the sentence, which in the latter case is to be immediately executed; and in the first it is to be referred back to Judiciary, who with the addition of two members elected by the Senate, or by their commission, is to reconsider the case, and reform the said sentence.

'91. But if the sentence shall have followed an accusation made by the House of Representatives, the Executive Power in that case can only suspend it till the next meeting of Congress, to whom then alone belongs the pardon or the relaxation of the punishment.

'92. When any urgent advantage or the public security demands it; the Executive may decree and publish general indults during the recess of Congress.

'93. By previous notice being given, and by the counsel and consent of the Senate, sanctioned by the vote of two-third parts of the senators, as-]

[sembled in sufficient number to form a constitutional sitting, the Executive may enter into treaties and negociations with other powers and states not belonging to this Confederation.

‘ 94. Under the same conditions and requisites, it is also authorised to name ambassadors, envoys, consuls, ministers, judges of the high court of justice, and all the other officers and functionaries in the government of the State, who may not be expressly indicated in the constitution, or by some established law, or by one that may in future be established by Congress.

‘ 95. By particular laws, the latter may relieve the Executive and the Senate of the troublesome task of nominating the whole of the subaltern officers of government, by confiding this charge only to the Executive, to the courts of justice, or to the heads of the different branches of administration, as may appear most convenient.

‘ 96. The Executive Power must likewise first obtain the advice, counsel and consent of the Senate, in order to grant military grades, and other honourable remunerations, compatible with the nature of government, notwithstanding they are to reward warlike acts, or important services, and if these compensations are pecuniary, the consent of the House of Representatives must be previously given.

‘ 97. But during the recess of the Senate, the Executive Power is authorised to fill the offices that may become vacant, granting them as it were by commission, till the next session, if the Senate does not assemble before that period.

‘ 98. The Executive Power is authorised by itself, to elect and name the persons who are to serve in the State offices, which the Legislative Power may have considered necessary for the dispatch of all the branches of the Federal Government; as well as to nominate the clerks and functionaries for the same, provided they are citizens belonging to the Confederation, but if not, it is to consult and follow the opinion and resolution of the Senate in such appointments.

‘ 99. As a consequence of this faculty, it can also remove them from their situations when it may think proper, but if such removal does not take place in consequence of faults and misdemeanours, but from a want of talent and ability, or from any other defect, not incompatible with their innocence and integrity, it ought then to recommend the former merit of these functionaries to Congress, that they may be remunerated and competently indemnified with other situations in the service of the nation.

‘ Sect. IV.—Duties of the Executive Power.

‘ 100. The Executive Power, in conformity to the laws and resolutions which on various occasions may be communicated to it by Congress, will provide by every means within the reach of its authority, for the interior and exterior security of the State, directing for this purpose proclamations to the towns of the interior, as well as notifications, orders, and whatever may be thought necessary.

‘ 101. Notwithstanding by a consequence of these principles, the Executive is authorised to undertake a defensive war, in order to repel any sudden attack; it cannot continue the same without the consent of Congress, which shall be assembled, if not then sitting, and without this previous consent, the former has not power to wage war out of the territory of the Confederation.

‘ 102. Every year it shall lay before both Houses of Congress, a particular statement of the situation of the country, with regard to revenue, expences and resources, pointing out the reforms that ought to be made in the branches of public administration, as well as every thing else that ought to come under the consideration of the two Houses, but without presenting the projected forms of a law, drawn up and worded as such.

‘ 103. It shall also be held at all times bound to lay before the Houses, the accounts, information and explanations, which the latter may require, reserving only those which for the moment are not to be published; and in similar cases the Executive may withhold from the knowledge of the House of Representatives, those secret treaties or negociations it may have entered into with the advice, counsel and consent of the Senate.

‘ 104. In all extraordinary occurrences the Executive is to convene Congress, or at least one of the Houses, and in case of any difference between them respecting the period of their summons, it can then fix the time of assembling, as stipulated in Art. 68.

‘ 105. It shall be one of its principal duties to watch over the exact, faithful, and inviolable execution of the laws, and for this as well as every other measure devolving on its authority, it may delegate the same to the officers and functionaries of the State, the most suitable to fulfil so important an obligation.

‘ 106. For the same purposes, and in conformity to the manner which may be prescribed by Congress, the Executive Power may commission agents or delegates near the tribunals and]

[courts of justice, to remonstrate with them respecting the observance of the legal forms, and the exact application of the laws, before the suits are closed; communicating to Congress the reforms that may be considered necessary, from the reports of these commissioners.

' 107. The Executive Power, as chief of the State, shall be authorised to receive in its name, the ambassadors, envoys, and public ministers of foreign nations.

' Sect. V. — General Dispositions relative to the Executive Power.

' 108. The provincial Executive Powers, or the chiefs charged with the government of the provinces, shall in each be the natural and immediate agents of the Federal Executive Power, respecting every thing that by the general Congress has not been particularly given in charge to the officers employed in the navy, army, and the branches of the national finance in the ports or principal places of the provinces.

' 109. As soon as ever the Executive Power, or any one of the members thereof, shall be accused before the Senate, and convicted of treason, venality or usurpation; they shall be immediately divested of their functions, and subjected to the consequences of the judgment, stipulated in Art. 58.

CHAP. IV. — *Of the Judicial Power.*

' Sect. I. — Nature, Election, and Duration of this Power.

' 110. The Judicial Power of the Confederation shall be lodged in a Supreme Court of Justice, resident in the federal city, and in the other inferior tribunals and judicatures, which Congress may establish, for the present, in the territory of the union.

' 111. The ministers of the Supreme Court of Justice, and those of the inferior ones, shall be named by the Executive Power, in the manner prescribed in Art. 94.

' 112. The Congress shall point out and determine the number of ministers, who are to compose the Courts of Justice, provided those elected be of the age of 30 years for the Supreme Court, and 25 for the others, and that they possess the qualities of residence, respectability, probity, and are lawyers received in the State.

' 113. The whole of them shall preserve their offices till their bad conduct may render them incapable of retaining them.

' 114. At fixed periods, determined by law, they shall receive for this service, the salaries that may be assigned them; and which cannot in any manner be diminished, as long as they fulfil their respective functions.

' Sect. II. — Attributes of the Judicial Power.

' 115. The Judicial Power of the Confederation shall be circumscribed to the matters confided thereto by the latter; viz. all the litigious civil or criminal questions which may arise from the contents of this Constitution — the treaties and negociations carried into effect under its authority — every thing concerning ambassadors, ministers, and consuls — matters belonging to the Admiralty and maritime jurisdiction — the differences in which the Federal State may have, or form part — those which may arise between two or more provinces — between a province and one or more citizens of another — between citizens of the same province, who may dispute lands granted by different provinces — between one province, or citizens thereof, and other States, citizens, or foreign vassals.

' 116. In these cases, the Supreme Court of Justice shall exercise its authority by appeal, according to the rules and exceptions prescribed by Congress, but in those in which a province bears an interested part, the same shall in that case exercise its own original and exclusive authority.

' 117. All the ordinary criminal cases, which may not belong to the right of accusation granted to the House of Representatives by the 44th article, shall be tried by juries, as soon as this criminal system of legislation may be established in Venezuela; the proceedings whereof shall take place in the same province in which the crime was committed; but when it has occurred out of the limits of the Confederation, and is against the law of nations, the Congress, by a particular law, shall determine the place in which the trial is to take place.

' 118. The Supreme Court of Justice shall have the exclusive right of examining, approving, and granting diplomas to all the attornies of the Confederation, who may have proved under the testimony of their respective governments, that they have performed the necessary courses of studies; and those who may in this manner obtain them, shall be authorized to practise throughout the whole of the same, even where there may be colleges of lawyers, whose exclusive privileges to practise are hereby annulled; and they shall also]

[have the right of being elected to any of the offices and commissions belonging to their profession, the above titles being previously presented to the executive power of the union, before the said right is exercised, in order to receive the necessary warrant; which form shall also be observed by those lawyers who having been received out of Venezuela, may there wish to practise their profession.

CHAP. V.—*Of the Provinces.*

Sec. I.—Limits of the Authority of each.

'119. No particular province shall be allowed to exercise any act which may belong to the attributes granted to Congress, and to the Executive Power of the Confederation; nor to make any law that may affect the general contracts of the same.

'120. Consequently, neither two nor more provinces shall be allowed to form alliances, or confederations amongst themselves; nor to conclude particular agreements without the consent of Congress, and in order to obtain the same, they are to specify thereto the object, terms, and duration of all such agreements, or particular conventions.

'121. Neither can they without the same requisites and consent of Congress, raise or maintain troops, or vessels of war in time of peace, nor set on foot or conclude contracts, stipulations, or agreements with any foreign power.

'122. It shall not be lawful for them, without the same previous requisites and consent, to establish tonnage, import and export duties, on foreign trade in their respective ports, or on the interior and coasting trade; for it is the duty of the general laws of the union, to endeavour to render the same uniform in the freedom of every kind of restraints, that may affect the prosperity of each.

'123. Without the same requisites and consent, it shall not be lawful for them to undertake any war that is not purely defensive, and in case of a sudden attack, imminent danger, or the certain dread of some assault; giving immediate notice to the Federal Government of all similar occurrences, in order that it may make timely provision against the same.

'124. In order that the particular laws of the provinces, may in no wise counteract those enacted by the Confederation, they shall at all times be previously submitted to the judgment of the Congress, before they have their full force and effect in their respective departments; it being however lawful to carry them into execution, in the mean time that they are revised by Congress.

Sec. II.—Reciprocal Correspondence between each.

'125. All public acts of every kind, as well as judicial sentences, sanctioned by the authorities, magistrates, and judges of one province, shall receive full credit and belief in all the others, in conformity to the general laws which Congress may establish for the uniform and invariable effects which are to accompany similar documents.

'126. Every freeman of one province, who may not be known as a vagrant, or marked by some public criminality, shall in all the others, enjoy all the rights of a free citizen thereof; and the inhabitants of one shall have free ingress and egress from the rest, and shall enjoy therein all the advantages and benefits of their industry, commerce, and tuition, subjecting themselves to the laws, imposts, and restrictions of the district in which they may be; provided that these same laws are not opposed to the transfer of any property, introduced into one province, for any of the others, the owners thereof may wish.

'127. The provinces, at the requisition of the respective Executive Powers, shall reciprocally deliver up to each other, all persons accused of state crimes, robbery, murder, or other capital offences, who may have taken refuge therein, that they may be tried by the provincial authority to whom the same belongs.

Sec. III.—Successive increase of the Confederation.

'128. As soon as the province of Coro, Maracaibo, and Guayana, from the oppression under which they now labour, are able and desirous of being united to the confederation, they shall be admitted to the same, without the forced separation, in which in spite of themselves and us, they have been kept, making any difference in the principles of equality, justice, and fraternity, which they shall enjoy from that time, the same as the other provinces of the union.

'129. In like manner, and under the same principles, shall be admitted and incorporated, any other of the provinces of the Columbian continent, (before Spanish America) which may be desirous of uniting therewith, under the necessary conditions and guarantees, in order to strengthen the union by the addition and connexion of their integral parts.

'130. Notwithstanding the cognizance, exami-]

[nation, and determination of these matters, or any others that may have any relation thereto, exclusively belongs to the authority of Congress, during the time of its recess, the Executive Power is authorized to promote and do every thing that may contribute to the progress of the union, under the regulations which may be prescribed by Congress.

' 131. It also exclusively belongs to the latter to regulate the formation or establishment of new provinces in the Confederation, whether it be by a division of the territory of one, or by the union of two or more, or of parts of any of them; but the establishment thereof shall not be considered as definitively settled, till the accord and consent of the Congress is obtained, as well as of the provinces interested in the annexation or division.

' 132. Congress shall also have the power to dispose of all lands and property belonging to the State, under the laws, regulations, and ordinances which it may form for the same; provided that no part of the constitution is altered or interpreted so as to injure the general rights of the Union, or the particular ones of the provinces.

SEC. IV.—MUTUAL GUARANTEE OF THE PROVINCES TO EACH OTHER.

' 133. The government of the union secures and guarantees to the provinces, the form of that republican government which each may adopt for the administration of its domestic concerns; but without approving of any provincial constitution which may be opposed to the liberal and free principles of representation herein contained, and without at any time consenting that any other form of government be established throughout the whole of the confederation.

' 134. It also confirms to the said provinces, their reciprocal liberty and independence, in that part of their sovereignty which they have reserved to themselves; and, when just and necessary, it will protect and aid each one of them against all invasions or domestic violence, with the plenitude of power and force which may be confided to it, for the preservation of the general peace and security, whenever the same may be required of it by the Provincial Legislature, or by the Executive Power, in case the former is not assembled and cannot be convened.

CHAP. VI.—*Revisal and Reform of the Constitution.*

' 135. In all cases wherein two-thirds of each of the Houses of Congress, or of the Provincial Legislatures, shall propose, and originally and reciprocally approve, of any reforms or alterations which they may consider necessary to this constitution, the same shall then be held as valid, and thenceforward form part thereof.

' 136. Whether the reform originates with the Congress or with the Legislatures, the articles submitted to a reform shall remain in their full force and vigour, till one of the bodies authorized to that effect, shall have approved of and sanctioned the alteration proposed by the other, in the manner prescribed in the preceding article.

CHAP. VII.—*Sanction or Ratification of the Constitution.*

' 137. The people of each province, by means of particular meetings, expressly convened for the purpose, or through the organ of their district electors, conclusively authorized to that effect, or by the voice of their parochial voters, who may have formed the primary meetings for the election of representatives, shall solemnly express their free and spontaneous will, to accept, reject, or to modify the whole or part of this constitution.

' 138. The present constitution, in order to receive their approbation, being read to the corporations each provincial government may have caused to be formed, in conformity to the preceding article; the same being obtained, together with the modifications and alterations which may occur by a plurality of votes, the observance thereof shall be solemnly sworn; and within the third day, they shall proceed to name their respective functionaries to fill the powers created by the national representation, which choice shall in all cases be made by the electors already pointed out.

' 139. The results of both operations shall, by the respective municipalities, be communicated to the government of the corresponding province, in order that the same being laid before Congress, when assembled, the latter may decide thereon.

' 140. The provinces which may be newly incorporated to the confederation, shall, at a proper time, comply with these formalities; and notwithstanding they may not for the present, urged by powerful and insuperable causes, have fulfilled the same, it shall not nevertheless be an obstacle against future annexation, whenever their governments may demand the same, by commissioners or delegates to Congress, when assembled, or to the Executive Power, during its recess.]

[CHAP. VIII.—*Rights of Man, which are to be acknowledged and respected throughout the whole extent of the State.*

SEC. I.—SOVEREIGNTY OF THE PEOPLE.

' 141. After men have been constituted into society, they have renounced that unlimited and licentious liberty to which they were easily led by their passions, it being only adapted to a savage state. The establishment of society presupposes the renunciation of these fatal rights, the acquisition of others more sweet and pacific, as well as a subjection to certain mutual duties.

' 142. The social compact secures to each individual the enjoyment and possession of his property, without detriment to the right which others may have to theirs.

' 143. A society of men united under the same laws, customs, and government, form a sovereignty.

' 144. The sovereignty of a country, or the supreme power of regulating and equitably directing the interests of the community, therefore essentially, and originally, resides in the general mass of its inhabitants, and is exercised by means of their empowered agents or representatives, named and established in conformity to the constitution.

' 145. No individual, no family, no portion or reunion of citizens, no particular corporation, no town, city, or district, shall attribute to itself the sovereignty of the society, which imprescriptible, unalienable, and indivisible in its essence and origin; and no person whatever shall exercise any public function of government, unless he has obtained it by the constitution.

' 146. The magistrates and officers of government, invested with any species of authority, either in the Legislative, Executive, or Judicial departments, are of consequence, mere agents and representatives of the people in the functions they exercise, and are at all times responsible to them for their public conduct, through the legal and constitutional channels.

' 147. Every citizen, without distinction, has a right to the public employments, in the manner and under the forms and conditions prescribed by law; the same not being the exclusive property of any particular class of men; and no man, corporation, or society of men, shall have any other title, whereby to obtain advantages or particular considerations, distinct from others, in the choice of offices, which may constitute a public career, excepting those which may arise from services to the State.

' 148. These same titles being however in no wise hereditary by nature, or transmissible to the sons, descendants, or to other relations by blood, the idea of a man being born a magistrate, legislator, judge, soldier, or functionary of any kind, is absurd, and contrary to nature.

' 149. The law is the free expression of the general will, or of the majority of the citizens, indicated through the organ of their Representatives legally constituted. It is also founded on justice and common utility, and is to protect public and individual liberty against oppression and violence.

' 150. All acts exercised against any person, out of the cases and contrary to the forms which the law determines, are iniquitous; and if by the same they usurp the constitutional authority or the liberty of the people, they shall be deemed tyrannical.

' SECT. II.—RIGHTS OF MAN IN SOCIETY.

' 151. The object of society, is the felicity of all; and governments have been instituted to secure man in the same, by protecting the amelioration of his physical and moral faculties, increasing the sphere of his enjoyments, and obtaining for him, the most just, and honest exercise of his rights.

' 152. These rights are, liberty, equality, right of property and security.

' 153. Liberty is the faculty of doing every thing that does not injure the rights of other individuals, or the body of society, whose limits can only be determined by the law, for otherwise they would become arbitrary, and ruinous to liberty itself.

' 154. Equality consists, in that the law is the same for all citizens; it is what punishes and what protects; it neither knows the distinction of birth, nor the inheritance of power.

' 155. Property, is the right which each enjoys of disposing of the goods which he may have obtained by his labour and industry.

' 156. Security, exists in the guarantee and protection which society gives to each of its members, with regard to the preservation of their persons, rights, and properties.

' 157. It shall not be lawful to hinder any thing not prohibited by law, and no one shall be obliged to do any thing, that is not thereby prescribed.

' 158. Neither can the citizens be recriminated, accused, held in custody, nor detained, excepting in the cases and manner determined by law; and he who may incite, solicit, issue, subscribe, exe-]

[cute, or cause to be executed, arbitrary orders or acts, shall be punished; but every citizen who may be called upon, or apprehended by virtue of the law, ought instantly to obey, for he becomes culpable by resistance.

'159. Every person shall be presumed innocent, till he has been declared guilty in conformity to the laws; and if in the mean time it should be thought necessary to secure him personally, all severity that may not be essentially necessary to this end, is to be suppressed.

'160. No person shall be judged, or condemned, to the sufferance of any punishment in criminal matters, till after he has been legally heard. Every one in similar cases, shall have the right of demanding the motive of the accusation attempted against him, and to have knowledge of its nature; to be confronted against his accusers and opponent witnesses; to produce others in his favour, as well as every other proof that may be favourable to his cause, within proper periods, either by means of himself, by powers, or by an attorney of his own choice; but no person shall be compelled or forced in any cause, to give testimony against himself, nor against direct or collateral relations to the fourth civil grade of consanguinity, and the second of affinity.

'161. Congress shall, with all possible brevity, establish by law and at full length, the trial by juries, for criminal and civil cases to which the same is commonly applied by other nations; together with all the forms of proceeding therein; and it shall, at the same time, make the declarations belonging to this place, in favour of liberty and personal security, that they may form part of this Constitution, and be observed throughout the whole State.

'162. Every person has the right of being secure of not suffering any search, inquest, examination, or irregular and unlawful seizure of his person, house, or property; and any order of a magistrate to examine suspicious places, (without the probability of some grievous act requiring the same) and not expressly designating the said places; or for the seizure of one or more persons, or their property, without naming the same, and indicating the motives of such procedure, together with the previous testimony and sworn deposition of creditable persons, shall be held as contrary to the above right, dangerous to liberty, and unlawful to issue.

'163. The house of every citizen is an inviolable sanctuary. No one has any right to enter therein, excepting in cases of fire, inundation, or on aid being demanded therefrom; or when any criminal proceedings take place in conformity to the laws, and under responsibility of the Constitutional authorities which may have issued the decrees. Domiciliary searches and civil executions can only take place during day, by virtue of the law, and with respect to the person and objects expressly named in the act ordaining such search or execution.

'164. When, by public authority, similar acts are granted, the same shall be limited to the person and objects, expressly pointed in the decree, ordaining the said search and execution; which shall not, however, be extended to the inquest and examination of individual papers; these shall be held inviolable, in like manner as the epistolary correspondences of all citizens, which it shall not be lawful for any authority to intercept, nor shall the same be valid in a court of justice, unless produced by the person to whom they have been forwarded by their author, but never by a third person, or when obtained by the reprobated means of interception. Crimes of high treason against the State are, however, excepted; as well as forgery and others, which may be committed by writing; in which cases, the search, examination, and seizure of any such documents, shall take place according to the dispositions of the law.

'165. Every individual of society holding the right to be protected by the same in the enjoyment of his life, liberty, and property, according to the laws, is of consequence bound to contribute on his part to the expenses of this protection, and to lend his personal services, or an equivalent for the same, whenever it may be necessary; but no person shall be deprived of the smallest portion of his property, nor can the same be applied to public uses without his own consent, or that of the legislative bodies representing the people; and when any public necessity, legally proved, should require that the property of any citizen be applied to similar uses, he is to receive therefore a just indemnity.

'166. No subsidy, charge, impost, tax, or contribution, can be established or levied, under any pretext whatever, without the consent of the people expressed through the organ of their representatives. All contributions have for object the general utility, and the citizens have the right of watching over their expenditure, and to cause account thereof to be laid before them, through the same channel.

'167. No kind of labour, culture, industry, or trade, shall be prohibited to the citizens, ex-]

[cepting those which at present form the subsistence of the State, but which shall hereafter be opened when Congress may judge it useful and conducive to the public cause.

'168. The liberty of each citizen claiming his rights before the depositaries of the public authority, with due moderation and respect, can in no case be hindered or withheld. All, on the contrary, ought to find a ready and sure remedy, in conformity to the laws, for the injuries and damages they may sustain in their persons, properties, honour, and good opinion.

'169. All foreigners, of whatever nation they may be of, shall be received into the State. Their persons and properties shall enjoy the same security as those of the other citizens, provided they respect the catholic religion, the only one tolerated; that they acknowledge the independence of this country, its sovereignty, and the authorities constituted by the general will of the inhabitants.

'170. No law, criminal or civil, shall have a retroactive effect, and any that may be enacted, in order to judge and punish acts committed before the existence of the same, shall be held as unjust, oppressive, and incompatible with the fundamental principles of a free government.

'171. It shall never be lawful to demand excessive securities, nor shall pecuniary fines be exacted, disproportioned to the crimes, or persons be condemned to cruel, ridiculous, or unusual punishments. Sanguinary laws ought to be diminished, as their frequent application is injurious to the State, and not less unjust than impolitic; for the true object of punishments is to correct, rather than destroy the human race.

'172. All treatment that may render more grievous the punishment determined by law, shall be held as a crime.

'173. The use of the torture is for ever abolished.

'174. Every person who may be legally detained, or held in custody, shall be set free as soon as he has given sufficient security; excepting in the cases in which there are evident proofs, or great presumption of capital crimes. If the arrest arises from debt, and there is no evident proof, or great presumption of fraud, the prisoner shall not be detained as soon as his property has been delivered up to his creditors, in conformity to the laws.

'175. No sentence pronounced for treason against the State, or for any other crime, shall entail infamy on the children or descendants of the criminal.

'176. No citizen of the provinces of the State, excepting those employed in the army, navy, or militia, then in actual service, shall be subjected to military law, nor suffer punishments inflicted by the same.

'177. Soldiers in time of peace, shall not be allowed to quarter themselves, nor take up lodgings, in the houses of private citizens, without the consent of the owners; nor in time of war, but by order of the civil magistrates, conformably to the laws.

'178. A well-regulated and trained militia, composed of the citizens, is the most proper and natural defence, as well as the most secure, to a free State. For this reason it shall not be lawful in time of peace, to keep up an establishment of regulars, greater than is absolutely necessary for the security of the country, by the consent of Congress.

'179. Neither shall it be unlawful for the citizens to have and carry legal arms, such as are permitted for their own defence; and the military power shall, in all cases, maintain a strict subordination to the civil authority, and be directed by the same.

'180. No personal privileges or immunities shall be allowed, the nature of the matter shall alone determine the magistrates who take cognizance thereof: and the functionaries of every class, in the cases which do not touch their profession and employment, shall be subject to the ordinary magistrates and tribunals, the same as the other citizens.

'181. The right of manifesting all ideas by means of the press, shall be free; but any person who may exercise the same, shall be answerable to the laws, if he attacks and disturbs by his opinions the public tranquillity, the belief, Christian morality, or the property, honour, and good opinion of any citizen.

'182. The provincial Legislatures shall have the right of petitioning Congress, and it shall not be unlawful for the inhabitants to assemble, orderly and quietly, in their respective parishes, in order to consult and treat respecting their own concerns, to give instructions to their Representatives in Congress, or in the province, or to direct petitions to one or other of the Legislative bodies, respecting the reform of grievances or ills, they may suffer in their affairs.

'183. For cases of this nature, a previous petition ought necessarily to be made out, signed by the heads of families, and other respectable persons of the parish, to at least the number of six, praying the respective municipality, that the]

[meeting may take place, and the latter shall determine the day, and commission a magistrate, or some other respectable person of the parish, to preside in the meeting; which being closed, and the act drawn up, he shall remit the same to the municipality, in order to forward it to its destination.

'184. Voting citizens or electors, are alone allowed to concur in these meetings, and the legislatures are not absolutely obliged to accede to these petitions, but to take them into consideration, in order to proceed in their functions, in the manner which may appear most conformable to the general good.

'185. The power of suspending the laws, or of stopping their execution, shall at no time be exercised, excepting by the respective Legislatures, or by some authority emanating from them for those particular cases only, which they may have expressly foreseen, to be exceptions to what is enacted by the Constitution; and all suspensions and obstruction to the execution thereof, which may take place without the consent of the Representatives of the people, shall be repelled as an infringement on their rights.

'186. The Legislative Power shall, in the mean time, act in all cases respecting which the Constitution may have been silent, and opportunely provide for the same; incorporating therein the additions or reforms, which it may have thought necessary to make in the Constitution.

'187. The right of the people to participate in the Legislature, is the best security and the firmest foundation of a free government: in consequence whereof it is necessary for the elections to be free and frequent, and that the citizens who may possess the qualifications of a moderate property, and who are besides desirous to promote the good of the community, should have the right of voting and electing the members of the Legislature, at fixed periods, and not too long, as is enacted by the Constitution.

'188. A too long continuation in office on the part of the principal functionaries of the Executive Power, is dangerous to liberty; and this circumstance powerfully calls for a periodical rotation, between the members of the said department, in order to secure the same.

'189. The three essential departments of governments, viz. the legislative, executive, and judicial, must necessarily be kept as distinct and independent of each other as the nature of a free government requires, and as much as is consistent with the great chain of connection, which binds together the whole fabric of the Constitution, by an indissoluble tie of friendship and union.

'190. The emigration from one province to another shall be perfectly free.

'191. Governments have been instituted for the common felicity, for the protection and security of the people forming the same, and not for the benefit, honour, or private interest of any one person, family, or of any one particular class of men, who only constitute part of the community. The best of all governments is that which is the most proper to produce the greatest proportion of good, and of happiness, and is less exposed to the danger of bad administration; therefore as many times as a government may be found incapable of answering these ends, or that the majority of the nation is opposed to the same, it has undoubtedly an unalienable and imprescriptible right of abolishing, changing, or reforming it in the manner which may be conceived most conducive to the public good. In order to obtain this indispensible majority, without any injury to justice and to general liberty, the Constitution presents and ordains the most reasonable, just, and regular means in the chapter of the revisal thereof, and the provinces will adopt other similar or equivalent ones in their respective Constitutions.

'Sect. III.—Duties of Man in Society.

'192. The declaration of rights contains the obligations of the Legislators, but the preservation of society demands, that those who constitute the same, equally know and fulfil theirs.

'193. The rights of others, become the moral limits of ours, and the ground-work of our duties relatively to the rest of the individuals forming the social body. They are founded on two principles, which nature has imprinted on the hearts of all; viz. 1st, *Do thou to others at all times, all the good thou wouldest wish to receive from them.* 2dly, *Do not thou to another, what thou wouldest not wish done to thee.*

'194. It is the duty of every individual in society to live in obedience to the laws, to obey and respect the magistrates and constituted authorites, who are his own organs; to maintain the liberty and the equality of rights; to contribute to the public expenses, and to serve his country when requisite, making for the same the sacrifice of his property, and of his life, should it be necessary.

'195. No one is a good man, or a good citizen, who does not faithfully and religiously ob-]

[serve the laws; and if he is not also a good son, a good brother, a good friend, a good husband, and a good father of his family.

'196. Any person who openly breaks through the laws, or who, without openly violating, eludes them by cunning and artful and culpable subterfuges, is an enemy to society, transgresses against the interests of all, and renders himself unworthy of the public benevolence and esteem.

'SEC. IV.—DUTIES OF THE SOCIAL BODY.

'197. Society secures to the individuals composing the same, the enjoyment of their lives, liberties, and properties, as well as all other natural rights; and in this consists the social guarantee resulting from the united concurrence of the members of the body, deposited in the national sovereignty.

'198. Governments being instituted for the good and common felicity of all persons, society is bound to give aid to the indigent and unfortunate, as well as instruction to all needful citizens.

'199. *In order to guard against every transgression that may arise from the high powers confided to us, we declare, that each and every one of the things constituted in the above declaration of rights, are exempt and beyond the reach of the general power invested in government, and being contained in, and founded on, the indistructible and sacred principles of nature, every law contrary to the same which may be enacted by the Federal Legislature, or by the Provinces, shall be absolutely null, and of no effect.*

CHAP. IX.—*Regulations and Dispositions of more general Tenor.*

'200. As that class of citizens, hitherto denominated *Indians*, has not till now reaped the advantage of certain laws which the Spanish monarchy dictated in their favour, in consequence of the functionaries of the government having forgotten their execution, and as the basis of the system of government, which Venezuela has adopted in this Constitution, is no other than that of justice and equality, the provincial governments are hereby most particularly enjoined, that in like manner as they are to apply their cares and endeavours, in order to obtain the instruction of all the inhabitants of the State, to provide for them schools, academies, and colleges, where all may learn the principles of religion, of sound morality, of policy, of science, and of the useful and necessary arts, such as are conducive to the maintainance and prosperity of the people; that they in like manner endeavour by every possible means to draw to the same houses of tuition the said citizen natives, to cause them to comprehend the intimate union by which they are bound to the rest of the citizens, to teach them that they merit the same considerations from government, to inculcate to them the rights which they enjoy, by the simple act of their being men equal to all others of the same kind; to the end, that by this means, they may be raised from the abject and ignorant state in which they have been kept by the ancient order of things, and that they may no longer remain isolated and fearful of dealing with other men; it being hereby prohibited for them henceforward to be employed against their own will, in the service of the curates of their parishes, or of any other person; they being also allowed to divide and lay out the grounds granted to them, and of which they hold possession; that the same may be proportionably parcelled out amongst the fathers of families of each town, for their own uses and purposes, and in conformity to the regulations which may be established by the provincial Governments.

'201. Consequently, hereby are revoked, and rendered null and void, all the laws which under the former Government granted to the natives certain tribunals, protectors, and the privilege of their always being considered as minors, which privileges, though apparently directed to protect, have nevertheless been extremely injurious to them, as experience has proved.

'202. The vile traffic of slaves, prohibited by decree of the Supreme Junta of Caracas, on the 14th of July, 1810, is hereby solemnly and constitutionally abolished in the whole territory of the Union, without it being lawful in any manner to import slaves of any kind, for the purposes of mercantile speculation.

'203. In the same manner are revoked and annulled, in every sense, the ancient laws which imposed a civil degradation on that part of the free population of Venezuela, hitherto known under the denomination of *persons of colour*; these shall all remain in the possession of their natural and civil rank, and be restored to the imprescriptible rights belonging to them, in like manner as the rest of the citizens.

'204. All titles granted by the former governments are extinguished; and neither Congress, nor the Provincial Legislatures, shall grant any others, either of nobility, honours, or hereditary distinctions; nor create offices or places of any nature, whose salaries or emoluments last longer than the good conduct of those who fill them.]

[‘ 205. Any person who may hold any office of confidence or honour, under the authority of the State, shall not be allowed to accept any present, title, or emolument, from any king, prince, or foreign power, without the consent of Congress.

‘ 206. The President and members of the Executive, Senators and Representatives, the military, and all civil functionaries, before they enter on the exercise of their functions, shall take oaths of fidelity to the State, and swear to maintain and defend the Constitution, to fulfil well and faithfully the duties of their offices, and to protect and preserve pure and untouched in this country the Catholic, Apostolic, and Roman religion, which they themselves profess.

‘ 207. The Executive Power shall have the oath administered by the President of the Senate, in presence of the two Houses; and the Senators and Representatives, by the President for the time being of the Executive, and in the presence of the other two individuals composing the same.

‘ 208. Congress shall determine the form of the oath, and by whom it is to be administered, to the officers and functionaries of the Confederation.

‘ 209. The inhabitants of each province shall be allowed to revoke the nomination of their Delegates to Congress, or any one of them, at any time of the year, as well as to send there others, in the place of the first, for the time left them to serve.

‘ 210. The means of ascertaining the general will of the people, respecting these revocations, shall be through the exclusive and peculiar channel of the Provincial Legislatures, and in conformity to what may be established by their respective Constitutions.

‘ 211. It is prohibited for all citizens to assist at the parochial and electoral meetings, prescribed by the Constitution, with arms, as well as at the peaceable meetings mentioned in article 182, and the following one, under the penalty of losing for 10 years, the right of voting, or assisting at the same.

‘ 212. Any person who may have been legally convicted of having purchased or sold votes in the said meetings, or of having obtained the election of any person, by means of threats, intrigue, artifices, or any kind of seduction, shall be excluded from the said meetings, and from the exercise of all public functions for the space of 20 years; and in case of the same occurring a second time, the exclusion shall be for ever; both being published throughout the chief district, by means of a proclamation of the municipality, which shall also circulate in the public papers.

‘ 213. Neither the parish voters, or the district electors, shall be allowed to receive any recompence from the State, for attending these meetings, in order to exercise therein what is prescribed by the Constitution; notwithstanding it may sometimes be necessary to expend some days to finish what may occur.

‘ 214. The citizens shall alone be allowed to exercise their political rights in the parish and district meetings, and in the cases and manner prescribed by the Constitution.

‘ 215. No individual, or any particular society, shall be allowed to lay petitions before the constituted authorities, in the name of the people; and much less to arrogate to themselves the title of *sovereign people;* and the citizen or citizens, who may transgress against this article, by disregarding the respect and veneration due to the representation and voice of the people, which can only be expressed by the general will, or through the organ of their legitimate Representatives in the Legislatures, shall be prosecuted, taken into custody, and judged according to the laws.

‘ 216. All assemblage of armed persons under whatever pretext they may be collected, unless by the authority of the constituted authorities, is an offence against the public security, and is to be immediately dispersed by means of force; and all assemblage of persons unarmed, which has not the same legal origin, shall, in the first instance, be dissolved by verbal orders, and if necessary, it shall be dispersed by force of arms in case of resistance, or great obstinacy.

‘ 217. The President and Members of the Executive Power, as well as the Senators, Representatives, and all other Functionaries of the Confederation, shall receive their respective salaries out of the treasury of the union.

‘ 218. No quantity of money in silver, gold, paper, or any other equivalent form, shall be taken out of the same, excepting for the purposes and payments ordained by law; and the Congress shall, annually, publish a statement and regular account of the receipts and expenditure of the public monies, for the information of all, as soon as the Executive has carried into effect what is stipulated by Art. 102.

‘ 219. No capitation tax, or any direct impost, shall be levied on the persons of the citizens, but in conformity to the quantity of population contained in each province, and according to the census which Congress will ordain to be taken]

[every five years, throughout the whole extent of the State.

'220. No preference shall be given to the ports of one province over those of another, either by any regulations of trade or finance; nor shall privileges or exclusive rights be granted to trading companies, or societies of industry; nor shall any restrictions be laid on the freedom of trade, or on the pursuits of agriculture and industry, excepting what are expressly stipulated by the Constitution.

'221. All prohibitive laws respecting similar matters, whenever circumstances may render the same necessary, shall be held as purely and essentially provisional; and, in order that the same may have effect more than one year, it shall be requisite to renew them with all the necessary formalities at the end of that period, and in like manner successively.

'222. In the meantime that Congress has not established a permanent form of naturalization for foreigners, the same shall obtain the right of citizens, as well as the power of voting, electing, and taking a seat in the House of the national Representatives, if, having declared their intention to establish themselves in the country before a municipality, and caused their names to be inscribed on the civil registers thereof, and having also renounced their right of citizenship to their own country, they have acquired the domiciliary rights and residence within the State, during the period of seven years, and have besides fulfilled the other conditions prescribed by the Constitution, in order to exercise the functions above stated.

'223. In all public acts the Columbian Era shall be used, and, in order to avoid all mistakes into calculations, in comparing this period with the common Christian Era, generally used by civilized countries, the former shall date from January 1, of the year of our Lord, 1811, which shall be the first of our Independence.

'224. Congress shall be authorized, by means of timely regulations, to provide for all parts of this Constitution, which cannot be immediately carried into execution, and, in a general manner, in order to avoid the injuries and inconveniences which might otherwise result to the State.

'225. Any person, who being in any province should violate the laws, shall be judged, in conformity thereto, by its provincial magistrates; but if he should transgress against those of the union, he shall be judged, in conformity to the same, by the functionaries of the Confederation; and, in order that it may not be necessary to have tribunals belonging to the Confederation in every place, and that the persons comprehended in these cases may not be taken out of their places of residence, Congress shall determine by law the said tribunals, and the forms under which they shall issue commissions to examine and judge all cases in the respective provinces.

'226. No person, within the Confederation of Venezuela, shall enjoy any other title or address than that of citizen, the only denomination of all the free persons composing the nation; but the Houses of Representatives, the Executive Power, and the Supreme Court of Justice, by all citizens shall be addressed under the same names, with the addition of Honourable for the first, Respectable for the second, and Upright for the third.

'227. The present Constitution, the laws that in consequence thereof may be enacted for its execution, as well as all the treaties which may be carried into effect under the government of the union, shall be held as the supreme law of the State, throughout the whole extent of the Confederation; and the authorities and inhabitants of the provinces shall be bound to obey, and religiously to observe the same, without fail or pretext; but the laws, which may be enacted in opposition thereto, shall be considered as without effect, unless they have passed through the forms requisite for a just and legal revisal and sanction.

'228. In the meantime, and till the formation of a civil and criminal code is carried into effect, as decreed by the Supreme Congress, March 8, ult. adapted to the form of government established in Venezuela, it is hereby declared, that the code, by which we have hitherto been governed, shall retain its due and full force and vigour, in all the points and matters which directly or indirectly may not be opposed to what is established by this Constitution.

229. *Conclusion.*—And whereas the Supreme Legislator of the universe, has been pleased to inspire into our hearts the most mutual and sincere friendship and union, as well amongst ourselves as with the rest of the inhabitants of the Columbian continent, who may wish to associate with us in order to defend our religion, our natural sovereignty, and our independence; therefore We, the said people of Venezuela, having freely ordained the preceding Constitution, containing the regulations, principles, and objects of our Confederation and perpetual alliance; and calling upon the same divinity to witness the]

[sincerity of our intentions, and imploring his powerful aid to secure to us for ever the blessings of liberty, and the imprescriptible rights we have from his generous benificence obtained; do mutually bind ourselves and engage, to observe and inviolably to fulfil, all and each of the things therein contained, from the time the same is ratified, in the manner stipulated therein; protesting nevertheless to alter, and at any time to change these said resolutions, whenever, and in conformity to the majority of the people of Columbia, united in a national body for the defence and preservation of their liberty and political independence, the same may be desired; modifying, correcting, and suiting the same opportunely according to a plurality, and our own common consent, in every thing which may have a direct tendency to the general interests of the said people, and as agreed upon through the organ of their legal Representatives, assembled in the General Congress of Columbia, or of any considerable part thereof, and sanctioned by its Constituents; constituting ourselves, in the meantime, in this union, all and each one of the provinces concurring to form the same, guarantees each one to the other, of the integrity of our respective territories and essential rights, with our lives, our fortunes, and our honour; and we confide and recommend the inviolability and conservation of this Constitution to the fidelity of the legislative bodies, of the executive powers, judges, and functionaries of the union, and of the provinces, as well as to the vigilance and virtues of all fathers of families, mothers, wives, and citizens of the State.

'Done in the Federal Palace of Caracas, December 21, in the year of our Lord, 1811, and the first of our Independence.

Juan Toro, President.
Isidoro Antonio Lopez Mendez.
Juan Jozé de Maya.
Nicolas de Castro.
Lino de Clemente.
Jozé Maria Ramirez.
Domingo de Alvarado.
Manuel Placido Maneyro.
Mariano de la Cova.
Francisco Xavier de Maiz.
Antonio Nicolas Brizeño.
Francisco X. Yanes.
Manuel Palacio.
Jozé de Sata y Bussy.
Jozé Ignacio Brizeño.
Jozé Gabriel de Alcalá.
Bartolomé Blandin.
Francisco Policarpo Ortiz.
Martin Tovar.
Pelipe Fermin Paul.
Jozé Luis Cabrera.
Francisco Hernandez.
Francisco del Toro.
Jozé Angel de Alamo.
Gabriel Perez de Pagola.
Francisco X. Ustariz.
Juan German Roscio.
Fernando Peñalver.

'Under the objections stated at the end of this act, No. 2, I sign this Constitution.

Francisco de Miranda, Vice-President.

'I subscribe to the whole, with the exception of Art. 180; renewing my protest made on the 5th instant.

Juan Nepomuceno Quintana.

'I subscribe to the whole, with the exception of Art. 180, which relates to the abolition of the personal immunity of the Clergy, respecting which I have solemnly protested, which act is to be inserted at the end of this Constitution.

Manuel Vicente Maya.

'I subscribe, under the same exceptions, as Señor Maya, and under the accompanying protest delivered this day.

Luis Jozé Cazorla.

'I subscribe to the whole of the Constitution, with the exception of the article respecting immunities.

Luis Jozé de Rivas y Tovar.

'Under my protest as made on the 16th instant.

Salvador Delgado.

'I subscribe to the whole, with the exception of the article which annuls immunities.

Jozé Vicente Unda.

'I subscribe to the present Constitution, with the exception of Art. 180, and in conformity to my protest made on the 5th instant, annexed to this Constitution, and in similar terms to those of Señor Quintana.

Luis Ignacio Mendoza.

'I subscribe to the whole of what is sanctioned in this Constitution, excepting the article which treats of the ecclesiastical immunity, and in conformity to the protest made on the 5th instant.

Juan Antonio Diaz Argote.

Francisco Isnardi, Secretary.

'III. Table of Latitude and Longitude of the most important places in this province.—N. B. For the sake of uniformity and compa-]

[rison, this, with many others, will be found at the end of the general preface.]

[VENTA, a small hamlet or inn of the province and government of Venezuela, well known upon the road, as being about half-way between Caracas and the Port. It is situate at the height of about 3600 English feet above the level of the sea, at which elevation the heat is never oppressive.]

VENTA, DE EN MEDIO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Paria, in Peru, of the archbishopric of Charcas, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Poopó.

VENTA, MORRO DE, a lofty mountain on the coast of the province and government of Cartagena and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, between the capital and the point of Zamba.

[VENTA, DE CRUZ, a town on the isthmus of Darien and Tierra Firme. Here the Spanish merchandise, from Panama to Porto Bello, is embarked on the river Chagre.]

VENTAMILLA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Sicasica, in Perú, 19 leagues from its capital.

VENTILLA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of La Paz, in Perú; *s. s. e.* of the capital.

[VENTO, SIERRA, on the *n.* coast of S. America, are mountains so named, behind the land called Punta de Del Rio, opposite to Tortugas Island.]

VENTUAVI, an abundant river of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia. It rises in the *sierra* of Maygualida, runs *w.* and, then turning to the *s.*, enters by a very wide mouth into the Orinoco, opposite the fort of St. Barbara, after having collected the waters of various other rivers; [its mouth is in *n.* lat. 4° 20′.]

VENTURA, a river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs *w.* and enters the Jazegua.

[VENUS, POINT, in Otaheite Island, in the S. Pacific Ocean, is the *e.* point of Matavai or Port Royal Bay, and *n.* point of the island. S. lat. 17° 29′. *w.* long. 149° 36.]

VERA, a province of the government of Paraguay, towards the *e.* part; discovered by Alvar Nuñez, who gave it this name, in 1541. It is bounded *s* by the river Plata, and *n.* by that of the Paraná; is of a very good climate, and extremely fertile territory, and was inhabited by Armiros and Guaranies, Indians, who were cruel, ferocious, and cannibals; but who are almost all reduced to the faith and to a civilized life, with immense labours and fatigues by the Jesuits, who established amongst them a well-organized republic. See articles PARAGUAY and GUAIRA.

[VERA CRUZ, a province of Nueva España, situated under the burning sun of the tropics, extends along the Mexican gulf, from the Rio Baraderas (or De los Lagartos) to the great river of Panuco, which rises in the metalliferous mountains of San Luis Potosi. Hence this intendancy includes a very considerable part of the *e.* coast of New Spain. Its length, as computed by Humboldt, from the Bay of Terminos near the Island of Carmen to the small port of Tampico, is 210 leagues, while its breadth is only in general from 25 to 28 leagues. It is bounded on the *e.* by the peninsula of Merida, on the *w.* by the intendancies of Oaxaca, Puebla, and Mexico, and on the *n.* by the colony of New Santander.

There are few regions in the new continent where the traveller is more struck with the assemblage of the most opposite climates. All the *w.* part of the intendancy of Vera Cruz forms the declivity of the *cordilleras* of Anahuac. In the space of a day the inhabitants descend from the regions of eternal snow to the plains in the vicinity of the sea, where the most suffocating heat prevails. The admirable order with which different tribes of vegetables rise above one another by strata, as it were, is no where more perceptible than in ascending from the port of Vera Cruz to the table-land of Perote. We see there the physiognomy of the country, the aspect of the sky, the form of plants, the figures of animals, the manners of the inhabitants, and the kind of cultivation followed by them, assuming a different appearance at every step of our progress.

As we ascend, nature appears gradually less animated, the beauty of the vegetable forms diminishes, the shoots become less succulent, and the flowers less coloured. The aspect of the Mexican oak quiets the alarms of travellers newly landed at Vera Cruz. Its presence demonstrates to him that he has left behind the zone so justly dreaded by the people of the *n.*, under which the yellow fever exercises its ravages in New Spain. This inferior limit of oaks warns the colonist who inhabits the central table-land how far he may descend towards the coast, without dread of the mortal disease of the *vomito*.—Forests of liquid-amber, near Xalapa, announce by the freshness of their verdure that this is the elevation at which the clouds suspended over the ocean come in contact with the basaltic summits of the *cordillera*. A little higher, near La Banderilla, the nutritive fruit of the banana-tree]

[comes no longer to maturity. In this foggy and cold region, therefore, want spurs on the Indian to labour, and excites his industry. At the height of San Miguel, pines begin to mingle with the oaks, which are found by the traveller as high as the elevated plains of Perote, where he beholds the delightful aspect of fields sown with wheat. Eight hundred metres higher the coldness of the climate will no longer admit of the vegetation of oaks; and pines alone there cover the rocks, whose summits enter the zone of eternal snow. Thus in a few hours the naturalist in this miraculous country ascends the whole scale of vegetation from the heliconia and the banana plant, whose glossy leaves swell out into extraordinary dimensions, to the stunted parenchyma of the resinous trees!

The province of Vera Cruz is enriched by nature with the most precious productions. At the foot of the *cordillera*, in the ever-green forests of Papantla, Nautla, and S. Andre Tuxtla, grows the epidendrum vanilla, of which the odoriferous fruit is employed for perfuming chocolate. The beautiful convolvulus jalapæ grows near the Indian villages of Colipa and Misantla, of which the tuberose root furnishes the jalap, one of the most energetic and beneficent purgatives. The myrtle *(myrtus pimenta)*, of which the grain forms an agreeable spice, well known in trade by the name of *pimienta de tabasco*, is produced in the forests which extend towards the river of Baraderas, in the *e.* part of the intendancy of Vera Cruz. The cocoa of Acayucan would be in request if the natives were to apply themselves more assiduously to the cultivation of cocoa-trees. On the *e.* and *s.* declivites of the Pic d'Orizaba, in the vallies which extend towards the small town of Cordoba, tobacco of an excellent quality is cultivated, which yields an annual revenue to the crown of more than 18,000,000 of francs, 750,060*l.* sterling. The similax, of which the root is the true sasaparilla, grows in the humid and umbrageous ravins of the *cordillera*. The cotton of the coast of Vera Cruz is celebrated for its fineness and whiteness. The sugar-cane yields nearly as much sugar as in the Island of Cuba, and more than in the plantations of St. Domingo.

This intendancy alone would keep alive the commerce of the port of Vera Cruz, if the number of colonists was greater, and if their laziness, the effect of the bounty of nature, and the facility of providing without effort for the most urgent wants of life, did not impede the progress of industry. The old population of Mexico was concentrated in the interior of the country on the table-land. The Mexican tribes who, according to Humboldt, were supposed to have come from the *n.* countries, gave the preference in their migrations to the ridges of the *cordilleras*, because they found on them a climate analogous to that of their native country. No doubt, on the first arrival of the Spaniards on the coast of Chalchiuhcuecan (Vera Cruz), all the country from the river of Papaloapan (Alvarado to Huaxtecapan), was better inhabited and better cultivated than it now is.—However, the conquerors found as they ascended the table-land the villages closer together, the fields divided into smaller portions, and the people more polished. The Spaniards, who imagined they founded new cities when they gave European names to Aztec cities, followed the traces of the indigenous civilization. They had very powerful motives for inhabiting the table-land of Anahuac. They dreaded the heat and the diseases which prevail in the plains. The search after the precious metals, the cultivation of European grain and fruit, the analogy of the climate with that of the Castilles, and many other causes of a similar description, all concurred to fix them on the ridge of the *cordillera*. So long as the *encomenderos*, abusing the rights which they derived from the laws, treated the Indians as slaves, a great number of them were transported from the regions of the coast to the table-land in the interior, either to work in the mines, or merely that they might be near the habitation of their masters. For two centuries the trade in indigo, sugar, and cotton, was next to nothing. The whites could by no means be induced to settle in the plains, where the true Indian climate prevails; and one would say that the Europeans came under the tropics merely to inhabit the temperate zone.

Since the great increase in the consumption of sugar, and since the new continent has come to furnish many of the productions formerly procured only in Asia and Africa, the plains *(tierras calientes)* afford, no doubt, a greater inducement to colonization. Hence, sugar and cotton plantations have been multiplying in the province of Vera Cruz, especially since the fatal events at St. Domingo, which have given a great stimulus to industry in the Spanish colonies. However, the progress hitherto has not been very remarkable on the Mexican coast. It will require centuries to re-people these deserts. Spaces of many square leagues are now only occupied by two or three huts *(hattos de ganado)*, around which stray herds of half wild cattle. A small number of powerful families who live on the cen-]

[tral table-land possess the greatest part of the shores of the intendancies of Vera Cruz and San Luis Potosi. No agrarian law forces these rich proprietors to sell their *mayorazgos*, if they persist in refusing to bring the immense territories which belong to them under cultivation. They harass their farmers, and turn them away at pleasure.

To this evil, which is common to the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, with Andalucia and a great part of Spain, other causes of depopulation must be added. The militia of the intendancy of Vera Cruz is much too numerous for a country so thinly inhabited. This service oppresses the labourer. He flees from the coast to avoid being compelled to enter into the corps of the *lanceros* and the *milicianos*. The levies for sailors to the royal navy are also too frequently repeated, and executed in too arbitrary a manner. Hitherto the government has neglected every means for increasing the population of this desert coast.—From this state of things results a great want of hands, and a scarcity of provisions, singular enough in a country of such great fertility. The wages of an ordinary workman at Vera Cruz are from five to six francs (4*s*. 2*d*. to 5*s*.) per day. A master mason, and every man who follows a particular trade, gains from 15 to 20 francs per day, that is to say, three times as much as on the central table-land.

The intendancy of Vera Cruz contains within its limits two Colossal summits, of which the one, the Volcan d'Orizaba, is, after the Popocatepetl, the most elevated mountain of New Spain. The summit of this truncated cone is inclined to the *s. e.* by which means the crater is visible at a great distance, even from the city of Xalapa.—The other summit, the Coffre de Perote, according to Humboldt's measurement, is nearly 400 metres higher than the Pic of Teneriffe, which is 1,312 feet. It serves for signal to the sailors who put in at Vera Cruz. Humboldt, considering this circumstance to render the determination of its astronomical position of great importance, observed circum-meridian altitudes of the sun on the Coffre itself. A thick bed of pumice-stone environs this porphyritical mountain. Nothing at the summit announces a crater; but the currents of lava observable between the small villages of Las Vigas and Hoya appear to be the effects of a very old lateral explosion. The small Volcan de Tuxtla, joining the Sierra de San Martin, is situated four leagues from the coast, *s. e.* from the port of Vera Cruz, near the Indian village of Santiago de Tuxtla. It is consequently out of the line forming the parallel of the burning volcanoes of Mexico. Its last eruption, which was very considerable, took place on March 2, 1793. The roofs of the houses at Oaxaca, Vera Cruz, and Perote, were then covered with volcanic ashes. At Perote, which is 57 leagues in a straight line distant from the volcano of Tuxtla, the subterraneous noises resembled heavy discharges of artillery. This distance is greater than that from Naples to Rome; and yet Vesuvius is not even heard beyond Gaeta.

In the *n*. part of the intendancy of Vera Cruz, *w*. from the mouth of the Rio Tecolutla, at two leagues distance from the great Indian village of Papantla, we meet with a pyramidal edifice of great antiquity. The pyramid of Papanta remained unknown to the first conquerors. It is situated in the midst of a thick forest, called Tajin in the Totonac language. The Indians concealed this monument, the object of an ancient veneration, for centuries from the Spaniards; and it was only discovered accidentally by some hunters about 30 years ago. This pyramid of Papantla was visited by M. Dupé, a captain in the service of the king of Spain, an observer of great modesty and learning, who has long employed himself in curious researches regarding the idols and architecture of the Mexicans. He examined carefully the cut of the stones of which it is constructed; and he made a drawing of the hieroglyphics with which these enormous stones are covered. It is to be wished that he would publish the description of this interesting monument. The figure published in 1788, in the *Gazette of Mexico*, is extremely imperfect.

The pyramid of Papantla is not constructed of bricks or clay mixed with white stones, and faced with a wall of amygdaloid, like the pyramids of Cholula and Teotihuacan: the only materials employed are immense stones of a porphyritical shape. Mortar is distinguishable in the seams. The edifice, however, is not so remarkable for its size as for its symmetry, the polish of the stones, and the great regularity of their cut. The base of the pyramid is an exact square, each side being 25 metres, or 82 feet, in length. The perpendicular height appears not to be more than from 16 to 20 metres, or from 52 to 65 feet.—This monument, like all the Mexican teocallis, is composed of several stages. Six are still distinguishable, and a seventh appears to be concealed by the vegetation with which the sides of the pyramid are covered. A great stair of 57 steps]

[conducts to the truncated top of the teocalli, where the human victims were sacrificed. On each side of the great stair is a small stair. The facing of the stories is adorned with hieroglyphics, in which serpents and crocodiles carved in relievo are discernible. Each story contains a great number of square niches symmetrically distributed. In the first story we reckon 24 on each side, in the second 20, and in the third 16. The number of these niches in the body of the pyramid is 366, and there are 12 in the stair towards the *e.* The Abbé Marquez supposes that this number of 378 niches has some allusion to a calendar of the Mexicans; and he even believes that in each of them one of the 20 figures was repeated, which in the hieroglyphical language of the Toulecs served as a symbol for marking the days of the common year, and the intercalated days at the end of the cycles. The year being composed of 18 months, of which each had 20 days, there would then be 360 days, to which, agreeably to the Egyptian practice, five complementary days were added, called *nemontemi*. The intercalation took place every 52 years, by adding 13 days to the cycle, which gives 360+5+13=378, simple signs, or composed of the days of the civil calendar, which was called *compohualilhuitl*, or *tonalpohualli*, to distinguish it from the *comilhuitlapohualliztli*, or ritual calendar used by the priests for indicating the return of sacrifices. It would be too great a digression to attempt here to examine the hypothesis of the Abbé Marquez, which has a resemblance to the astronomical explantions given by a celebrated historian of the number of apartments and steps found in the great Egyptian labyrinth.

The intendancy of Vera Cruz has no metallic mines of any importance. The mines of Zomelahuacan, near Jalacingo, are almost abandoned. —Its population amounted in 1803, to 156,000 souls. The extent of surface in square leagues is computed at 4,141, thus giving 38 inhabitants to the square league.

The most remarkable cities of this province are,—

Vera Cruz, the capital,	Cordoba,
Xalapa,	Orizaba,
Perote,	Tlacotlalpan.]

Vera Cruz, a city and capital of the government of this name, in the kingdom of Nueva España; founded by Hernan Cortés, on the coast of the N. Sea; with a port much frequented by vessels from Europe and different parts of America; and by which the whole trade of that kingdom is carried on. The city is small, but handsome, with streets intersecting each other in straight lines, *e.* and *w.* and *n.* and *s.* It has a magnificent parish church, and seven convents, one of the religious of St. Domingo, another of La Merced, another of S. Augustin, and a college which belonged to the Jesuits; two hospitals, the one of San Juan de Dios, and the other of the order of La Caridad, with the title of S. Hipolito. It is well fortified, with a good wall, which has eight bulwarks, defending the port and the mole, which was begun to be built by the Viceroy, Don Antonio de Mendoza. The port is, however, nothing but a kind of road, formed by an island, in which vessels lie much exposed. Without the walls of the city is a vice-parish, with the title of Santo Christo del Buen Viage, and another temple dedicated to its patron and tutelar, St. Sebastian; where also is founded the hospital of convalescence of the religious Bethlemites.

This city is of a hot and unhealthy temperature; but abounding in all sorts of vegetable productions, as well European as those of Nueva España; the same being the main branches of its commerce. It was translated to the part in which it stands, at a little distance from its former situation, by order of the Viceroy, the Count of Monterry, for the sake of a better port. Here are four companies of militia, consisting of the inhabitants, two of Mulattoes, and two of Free Negroes; each company consists of 100 men, and on them devolves the duty of defending the principal place in the town. Besides these, there are three companies of dragoons, of regular troops, and in the neighbouring *ranchos*, or small farms, 800 other men are enlisted, who are armed with lances, and appear whenever the firing of a cannon gives them notice that they are wanted. The city is well defended, and furnished with plenty of good artillery. On the land side is a gate, called Puerta Nueva, and which is only opened when the viceroys make their entry; there is also another gate, called the Mexican, as by this the traffic and commerce is carried on; and towards the sea is the gate of the Quay (Muella), and three others with the names of La Caleta, La Atarazana, and Del Pescado.

On the island which forms the port is the castle of S. Juan de Ulua, large and well furnished with 120 cannons and 3 mortars; as also a handsome and modern built battery, by the which are defended the two channels, the one to the *n.* the other to the *s. e.* The pirate Lorenzillo took and sacked this city in 1682: 176 miles from Mexico, to the *e.* in long. 96° 3′ 35″ *w.* lat. 19° 11′ 33″ *n.*

The settlements of its district are,

Medellin, Tacotalpa,
Alvarado, Talixcoyan,
Cotaxtla.

[INDEX TO THE ADDITIONAL INFORMATION RESPECTING THE CITY OF VERA CRUZ.

1. *History and General Statistics.*—2. *Commerce.* —3. *Revolution.*

1. *History and General Statistics.*—The city of Vera Cruz, the residence of the intendant, is properly designated by Humboldt as the centre of European and W. Indian commerce. The city is beautifully and regularly built, and inhabited by well-informed merchants, active and zealous for the good of their country. The interior police has been much improved during these few years. The district in which Vera Cruz is situated was formerly called Chalchiuhcuecan. The island on which the fortress of San Juan de Ulua was constructed at an enormous expense (according to vulgar tradition at an expense of 200,000,000 francs, or £.8,334,000 sterling,) was visited by Juan de Grixalva in 1518. He gave it the name of Ulua, because having found the remains of two unfortunate victims who had been sacrificed there (according to a custom prevalent on several of the small islands around the port of Vera Cruz, and especially on that, the dread of navigators, still bearing the name of Isla de Sacrificios,) and having asked the natives why they sacrificed men, they answered that it was by orders of the kings of Acolhua or Mexico. The Spaniards, who had Indians of Yucatan for interpreters, mistook the answer, and believed Ulua to be the name of the island. It is to similar mistakes that Peru, the coast of Paria, and several other provinces, owe their present names. The city of Vera Cruz is frequently called Vera Cruz Nueva, to distinguish it from Vera Cruz Vieja, situated near the mouth of the Rio Antigua, considered by all the historians as the first colony founded by Cortez. The falsity of this opinion has been proved by the Abbe Clavigero. The city was began in 1519, and, called Villarica, or La Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz, was situate at three leagues distance from Cempoalla, the head town of the Totonacs, near the small port of Chiahuitzla, which we can with difficulty recognize in Robertson's work under the name of Quiabislan. Three years afterwards la Villa Rica was deserted, and the Spaniards founded another city to the south, which has preserved the name of la Antigua. It is believed in the country that this second colony was again abandoned on account of the *vomito*, which at that period cut off more than two-thirds of the Europeans, who landed in the hot season. The viceroy, Count de Monterey, who governed Mexico at the end of the sixteenth century, ordered the foundations of the Nueva Vera Cruz, or present city, to be laid opposite the island of San Juan d'Ulua in the district of Calchiuhcuecan, in the very place where Cortez first landed, on April 21, 1519. This third city of Vera Cruz received its privileges of city only under Philip III. in 1615. It is situate in an arid plain, destitute of running water, on which the north winds, which blow with impetuosity from October till April, have formed hills of moving sand. These downs *(meganos de arena)* change their form and situation every year. They are from 8 to 12 metres, or from 26 to 38 feet, in height, and contribute very much by the reverberation of the sun's rays, and the high temperature which they acquire during the summer months, to increase the suffocating heat of the air of Vera Cruz. Between the city and the Aroyo Gavilan, in the midst of the downs, are marshy grounds covered with mangles and other brushwood. The stagnant water of the Baxio or shoal de la Tembladera, and the small lakes of l'Hormiga, el Rancho de la Hortaliza, and Arjona, occasion intermittent fevers among the natives. It is not improbable that it is also not one of the least important among the fatal causes of the black sickness *(vomito prieto)*.

All the edifices of Vera Cruz are constructed of materials drawn from the bottom of the ocean, the stony habitations of the madrepores *(piedras de mucara)*; for no rock is to be found in the environs of the city. The secondary formations, which repose on the porphyry of l'Encero, and which appear only near Acazonica, a farm of the Jesuits, celebrated for its quarries of beautifully foliated gypsum, are covered with sand. Water is found on digging the sandy soil of Vera Cruz at the depth of a metre, or 9.8 feet; but this water proceeds from the filtration of the marshes formed in the downs. It is rain water, which has been in contact with the roots of vegetables; and is of a very bad quality, and only used for washing. The lower people, (and the fact is important for the medical topography of Vera Cruz) are obliged to have recourse to the water of a ditch *(zanja)* which comes from the *meganos*, and is somewhat better than the well water, or that of the brook of Tenoya. People in easy circumstances, however, drink rain water collected in cisterns, of which the construction is extremely]

[improper, with the exception of the beautiful cisterns *(algibes)* of the castle of San Juan d'Ulua, of which the very pure and wholesome water is only distributed to those in the military. This want of good potable water has been for centuries looked upon as one of the numerous causes of the diseases of the inhabitants. In 1704 a project was formed for conducting part of the fine river Xamapa to the port of Vera Cruz. King Philip V. sent a French engineer to examine the ground. The engineer, discontented, no doubt, with his stay in a country so hot and disagreeable to live in, declared the execution of the project impossible. In 1756 the debates were renewed among the engineers, the municipality, the governor, the viceroy's assessor and the fiscal. Hitherto there has been spent in visits of persons of skill and judicial expenses (for every thing becomes a law-suit in the Spanish colonies!) the sum of 2,250,000 francs, or £.93,757 sterling. Before surveying the ground, a dike or embankment has been formed 1100 metres (3608 feet) above the village of Xamapa, at an expense of 1,500,000 francs, or £.62,505 sterling, which is now nearly half destroyed. The government has levied for these 12 years on the inhabitants a duty on flour, which brings in annually more than 150,000 francs, or £.6250 sterling. A stone aqueduct *(atarxea)* capable of furnishing a section of water of 116 square centimetres, or 1798 square inches, is already constructed for a length of more than 900 metres (2952 feet), and yet, notwithstanding all these expenses, and the farago of memoirs and informes heaped up in the archives, the waters of the Rio Xamapa are still more than 23,000 metres (75,459 feet) distant from the town of Vera Cruz. In 1795 they ended with what they ought to have began. A survey was made of the ground, and it was found that the mean body of the Xamapa was 8m. 33, (27.32 feet) (10 Mexican varas, and 22½ inches) above the level of the streets of Vera Cruz. It was found that the great dike ought to have been placed at Medellin, and that through ignorance it was constructed not only in a point of too great elevation, but also 7500 metres (or 24,605 feet) farther from the port than the necessary fall for conveying the water demanded. In the present state of things, the construction of the aqueduct from the Rio Xamapa to Vera Cruz is estimated at 5 or 6,000,000 francs, (or £.208,350 to £.250,020.) In a country abounding with immense metallic wealth it is not the greatness of the sum which frightens the government. The project is put off because it has been lately calculated that 10 public cisterns, placed without the precincts of the city, would not altogether cost more than 700,000 francs, (£.29,169 sterling,) and would be sufficient for a population of 16,000 souls, if each cistern of water contained a volume of water of 670 cubic metres, or 23,661 cubic feet "Why?" it is said in the report to the viceroy, "why go so far to seek what nature affords at hand? Why not profit by the regular and abundant rains, which, according to the accurate experiments of Colonel Costanzo, furnish three times more water than what falls in France and Germany?" The habitual population of Vera Cruz, without including the militia and seafaring people, is 16,000.

2. *Commerce.*—The goods that were exported principally from Holland, England, France, with some fineries from Italy, have usually paid enormous duties in Spain, and when they arrived at their destination at Vera Cruz, fresh ones were exacted, so that the articles doubled in value before they came to the retailer. Again, the exports from thence being small, cash was the principal means of procuring them, so that the advantage was double against Spain, and in favour of the foreign merchant. The following *pro forma* will serve to shew at what price the consumer laid in his necessaries, and will at the same time form a contrast of trade direct from England.

PRO FORMA.

Calculated in English Money.

For £.100 value of British manufactures, purchased in Great Britain, and sent out to Cadiz in British ships; and again exported to Spanish America in Spanish ships.

	£.
First cost in Great Britain	100
Shipping, charges, freight, and insurance to Cadiz	5
War duty on the exportation	1
Duty paid on importation into Cadiz	15
Importer's profit in Cadiz	20
Duty paid in Cadiz on re-shipment to America	10
Freight and insurance from Cadiz to America	20
First cost and charges out to America	171
Spanish exporter's profit on arrival out in America Frequently 200 per cent.; but say one half thereof	171
Paid by the purchaser in Spanish America	342]

PRO FORMA.

Calculated in English Money.

For £.100 value of British manufactures, sent out immediately from Great Britain by British merchants, in British ships, to Spanish America.

	£.
First cost	100
War duty paid on the exportation	4
Shipping charges and freight out	10
Insurance out, if by an armed ship	6
First cost and charges out to America	120
British exporter's profit at 100 per cent. thereon	120
Paid by the purchaser in Spanish America	240
Cheaper to the purchaser in Spanish America	102
	342

The exorbitant price of goods, which the wearer or consumer could not brook, created a spirit of contraband, which again turned out in favour of the foreigner, who principally sold for cash, and the neighbouring English and neutral islands reaped the benefit.

The difficulty with which royal grants in the early times necessary to form a shipment to Spanish America were obtained, and these specifying it to be from the port of Seville, to which also the returns were to be made, operated long as a stumbling-block to all exertions and enterprises in commercial relations from the mother country to her colonies, and gave the neighbouring Dutch the advantages of the trade; an alienation which the great vigilance of their multiplied custom-house officers could not counteract. By this irregular channel the advantages were entirely lost to government.

In 1728, a company of Biscayan merchants proposed to the king a plan of hindering, at their own expense, the contraband trade that was carried on with the Dutch, more particularly in the province of Venezuela, and those confining, if in return they should be allowed the exclusive right of supplying the same with goods and other necessaries, and of thence exporting the productions. The proposition was acceded to, and the company instituted. By their charter, they are called the Company of Guipuscoa, from the name of that province in the *n.* of Spain, where the plan originated, and the members chiefly resided.

They were allowed the ports of Biscay to make shipments out; were provided with cruisers and regular letters of marque, but their returns were confined to Cadiz, where agents were placed. By their stipulations, contraband goods, captured by them, could be sold in Caracas; and cocoa taken in the same way, they were privileged to send to Vera Cruz, where this article from its great consumption, has frequently, during war time, been in as great demand and at as high prices as in Spain.

Their rights and privileges were extensive, and it was specified to be no degradation for the nobility to have shares in it. The obligation to supply the country, and to suppress illicit trade, was the only counterbalance. It answered, however, but one purpose, which was, to hinder cocoa (being a bulky article) from going to a foreign market, but Spain being previously supplied with this article of her own growth, the price soon became lowered to one half. The company's charter was afterwards modified, so as not to put the colonist so much in their power, and in 1778, was entirely taken away by opening the trade to all nations, and by increasing the number of ports of entry.

Direct commerce, however, lingered from the many shackles under which it was kept, and from the rivalship of neutrals; for the mother country sent out (what she could barely afford) little more than dried fruits, coarse earthenware, and hardware, iron, Catalan brandies and wines, oil, coarse silks from Barcelona, pickled tunny fish (a great Spanish luxury) and such like inconsiderable articles. German and English goods still continued to come through their old devious channels.

This confined direct trade varied much, according to the vicissitudes of war or peace. During the late wars, it was principally limited to small vessels called *faluccas*, that went out with Spanish paper, used in enveloping tobacco for smoking, which may be considered as one of the greatest luxuries of the Spanish American, who often bought it at 40 dollars per ream; and it would be worth while, should Spain cease to supply this article, principally made in Barcelona, to adopt its manufacture in England, as it exclusively suits the smoker, from its containing no pernicious empyreumatic oil, nor any sizing or indigo. To this article they added uncoloured brandies, and quicksilver, for the use of the mines. If they got out safe, they returned with cocoa in bulk, which they laid in at 15 dollars, and sold on arriving at 112. These were, however, small adventures]

[that bore not the character of trade, but that of a lottery, like which also, they were undertaken in shares, and insurance excluded.

The ports of entry, on their augmentation, were divided into two classes, viz. *mayores* and *minores*. Ships from Spain could only arrive in the former, where they paid the whole royal and municipal duties, as established by the tarifs of customs, and in these ports shipments to the second class originated, where they only paid the municipal duties.

The system of Spanish custom is complicated, not generally understood by the English merchant, and may deserve some detail. Shipments direct from Spain, of national goods, pay equal to $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on entry, and when of foreign manufactures, on landing in Spain, 15 per cent. and on being re-shipped 10; on arriving out, they again pay the royal duty of 7 per cent. besides municipal and other duties, which altogether amount to about 45 per cent. the total of which must be paid before the merchant can vend his articles, for he is not allowed to bond them; so that the price at which the consumer is to purchase may be easily calculated, when freight, charges, and profits are added.

Articles of export, for the consumption of their own manufactures at home, such as cochineal, indigo, cotton, and dye-woods, are subject to moderate duties; but when destined to a foreign market, bear heavy imposts, a regulation intended to encourage their own manufactures, from which great benefit cannot have been derived, since one of their best statists has remarked, that 8,000,000 of the inhabitants are clothed in foreign goods.

The Llama, Vicuña, and sheep's wools, are duty-free when shipped to Spain, but bear heavy export duties when sent to a foreign nation. The first, being most inferior, pays 8 per cent. ad valorem; the second double, besides an addition of two dollars per 100lbs.; and the latter $33\frac{1}{3}$, according to the royal regulations of 1800.

The sheep's wool of Spanish America, that has been neglected in a strange way for want of encouragement, might become one of their most valuable exports; for the plains and grazing pastures of the kingdom of Mexico particularly, may, in point of flocks, be compared with those for which Spain was so lately famous. This wool has scarcely been considered as an object of commercial utility, and the sheep generally goes unheeded and unshorn. They manufacture, indeed, a few coarse blankets, called *mantas* and *fresadas*, but there are no depôts to collect, prepare, and pack it in its raw state to any quantity. Even deer skins, that might be collected, are in a great measure unnoticed, besides a variety of other resources which want only encouragement to make them staple articles; and in the eye of the economist, the productions of these regions seem for the most part best suited to the wants of a manufacturing country, and peculiarly to invite its trade.

The difficulty of access to those statements that are only in the hands of government and their officers, renders it impossible to give any exact and general scale of the annual amount of trade from Spain to Spanish America, and even were that difficulty overcome, the interruptions, and the prevalence of smuggling during the late war, would defeat any attempt to form a correct statement. Nor are we, in this particular, assisted by *Laborde's View of Spain*, as his tables of revenue relating to America, do not extend beyond 1788; though he tells us, that in 1792, the aggregate export trade to that country, amounted to £.2,812,500, which must clash materially with the subsequent statement relating to the fair of Xalapa.

With regard to the port of Laguira alone, and this will serve to assist in estimating the trade of the rest, it is stated, on the authority of Mr. Walton, that the value of goods that passed through the custom-house in the year 1796, (the most neutral period which Spain has enjoyed for some years,) was as follows:

	Hard Dollars.
Of Spanish or free articles - - -	932,881
Of foreign goods re-manufactured and prepared in Spain, such as calicoes of foreign fabric, printed there only	753,442
Of entirely foreign goods - - - -	1,429,487
	3,115,810

equal to £.701,057 sterling, which left to the government, in duties, about 300,000 dollars.

As we have before observed, it is not possible to form any calculation of the annual contraband trade carried on, on these same coasts; but it may safely be said to amount to triple that of the regular importations. Hence, it is evident, that the proportion of foreign goods, regular and contraband, introduced into the Spanish colonies greatly exceeds that of the national articles of trade. The Spaniards have always given a preference to German and Silesian piece-goods,]

[from their being of linen, but now, they get habituated to wear cotton, which bids fair to supply the present privation of the former articles, by the substitution of English goods. Ticklenburgs and checks form the clothing of slaves, and common people; and *Britannias*, *estopillas*, *creas à la Morlaix*, *platillas*, and such like, that of the better sort. The imitations of these goods, in quality, shape, marks, and packing, now adopted in the Scotch and English manufactures, answer very well; they do not altogether deceive the Spaniards, who are excellent judges of goods, but serve the purposes, whilst the real ones are not attainable, and till they are capable of being brought to a more perfect resemblance, which would give them a great additional value.

There exists, in addition to the above, a trifling trade, principally of dried and jerked meats, country cheese, garlic, pottery, &c. carried on between the main and the neighbouring Spanish islands.

The main affords annually, about 12,000 mules to the different islands, that are valued at 25 dollars per head. Few horned cattle are now shipped, but hides form a large proportion of nearly every cargo, and in the province of Caracas, and those confining, may be reckoned at 100,000 per annum; but La Plata could furnish more, better, and at a cheaper rate.

The planting of coffee is now becoming more in vogue, perhaps its small consumption in Spain, has hitherto kept it back. Cotton might be carried to an amazing advancement, if encouragement and machinery for cleaning it were introduced, and a local inspection established, to give greater care and reliance on its preparation and packing.

The estimates of produce, shipped in the year 1801, in vessels furnished with English passes from Puerto Cavello, which had generally 100 small ones employed in that way, are as follows; but the amount of cash sent to procure goods, and the articles shipped clandestinely on the coast, are equal to a great deal more.

Indigo	100,000 lbs.
Cotton	250,000 do.
Cocoa	40,000 *fanegas*.
Hides	70,000 do.
Coffee	20,000 lbs.
Copper	28,000 do.
Horses	500 do.
Mules	5,000 do.

With some gums, drugs, dye-woods, &c. The exports of sugar is asserted by Humboldt to amount annually to more than 500,000 *arrobas*; whilst all the *vaynilla* consumed in Europe comes from hence and Oaxaca. He reckons the value of the latter at upwards of £.75,000 per annum. (See ESPANNA NUEVA, index to the additional matter respecting.

The policy of the British nation, in affording passes to Spanish vessels, which gave them perfect security on those seas, had, in addition to the good effect of turning their trade to their own advantage, the double one, of increasing an intercourse which has given rise to a reciprocity of commercial relations, and of convincing the Spaniards, that the English were sensible, that the war then waging, was more the effect of political necessity than of inclination.

The surplus of produce, particularly the bulky part, even cocoa, that is under the most express restrictions and prohibitions, for the last years of war, has circulated through the United States, and from thence found its way to Europe; and the high prices at which this article has been kept in Spain, have fully paid the increase of charges, which must naturally originate from such a circuitous route; for, as we have before remarked, the running vessels have been inconsiderable.

The following were the means by which the clandestine intercourse with British islands, under passes granted by the governors, was carried on. The Spanish vessels cleared out for Guadaloupe, Martinique, and St. Domingo, then in possession of their allies, and when they returned, produced false clearances and fabricated papers by way of form; and the ease with which these were obtained in the islands, would appear astonishing to one who is not acquainted with colonial dealings. A passport to any part, or ships' papers of any nation, may be obtained for a trifle, in Curaçoa particularly, which have deceived, and would deceive, the most scrutinizing cruiser at sea. Thus the clearances in the Spanish custom-houses are made nearly all for islands, to which there never existed a trade of the smallest nature; and so interesting was this species of commerce to the country, in giving vent to their produce and obtaining in return cloaths, that notwithstanding the severe decrees against it, which owed their origin to the jealousy and influence of the French, it was never interfered with; nay, the officers charged with the execution of them, shared often in its profits.

The fast sailing schooners thus employed, were generally pilot boats built in Virginia, and sent]

[out for sale; but very superior boats are constructed in many ports on the main, particularly Maracaibo, which from the excellency of their timber, last three times as long as any other.

The indigo of the provinces of Caracas, Venezuela, &c. is only eight per cent. in value below that of Guatemala; but the least encouragement would soon double the amount produced on the whole main. The tobacco, being hitherto in the monopoly of the crown, whose prices are not so encouraging as if there was a competition in trade, is not carried for that reason to any great extent of cultivation; good authorities, however, quote the value of what is grown on the main, annually, at the government prices, to extend to 3,000,000 of dollars; and the Dutch, who have always been considered as the best judges of this article, give it a double estimation to that grown in North America, and place it next to that of Cuba.

The trade to Asia by the South Sea from Acapulco was estimated at 10,000,000 of dollars, which were sent to purchase muslins, printed goods, silks, spices, and perfumes; and through this channel the kingdom of Mexico and other provinces were supplied. Since the late years of war, however, necessity has driven them to use European goods for ornamental apparel; these have circulated by the way of Vera Cruz, whither they have been sent from the United States and English islands; nor would it be difficult to retain this consumption in the same channel, or rather give it a direct one in case of commercial regulations being established, if our manufacturers would attend to the outrè taste of the Spaniards in that country, and our shippers of goods be more discriminate in their assortments. The supplying of this quarter might also be made an interesting branch to the trade of the East India Company.

Among the great undertakings that yet remain to be accomplished for the benefit of mankind, as the great medium of the circulation of wealth, is, the opening a navigation with the South Sea by means of a canal across the isthmus of Panama. When we consider the obstacles that have been overcome in uniting the trade of two small towns in England, and how much nature has been brought to a level by the industry of man, the magnitude of this effort appears to diminish, and its successful execution may be expected to form a memorable epoch in the annals of future times. It is to be hoped, that the locality of the country will be now explored for the purpose. An isthmus of only 30 miles between two oceans cannot be an insuperable barrier to the inventive genius and perseverance of man in the present age; the ground is generally thought by late travellers to be more suitable for an enterprise of this kind, than the academicians sent over for its survey have reported. Panama, in the Indian language, signifies a place abounding in fish; and the navigable rivers, inlets, and bays, which were formerly examined by Alçedo, and communicated in this Dictionary, would much facilitate this great and laudable work.

Commercial disputes in Spanish America are not subject to the common process of the law, but are carried before a board of commerce, called *el consulado*, whose summary is short, definitive, and promptly enforced. In vending a cargo, if the purchaser is debited to sales per such a vessel, and not in the name of the merchant who vends, the debt is easier collected, as a delay beyond the time agreed upon, makes him liable for any detention in the returns of the vessel, which is a considerable check where the regularity of bonds is not adopted. The rules by which commercial transactions are guided are *las ordenanzas de Bilbao*, as complete a digest of mercantile law and usage as any nation would wish to have, as it comprehends a remedy for every distress which misfortune or fraud may bring on the trader. It was drawn up by the most learned and experienced body of merchants the nation ever had. Those of Biscay had the greatest share in its formation, from whom it takes its name, and have always been the most famed; in this work they particularly had in view the counteraction of abuses, likely to originate in the extention of that good faith, which forms the basis of all trade on a large scale.

As it is only by shewing what has been the trade of those individual ports of which we have authentic information, that it becomes possible for us to judge of the value and extent of trade with Spanish America, and the mode in which it is carried on, we insert the following statements; and in addition to them a short detail of the fair of Xalapa, that has for many years been the standard of trade in that country, and may be of general use to the trader in England, as the state of war alone has suspended it.

The following are particulars of the amount and value of goods furnished by each European nation to Spain (in time of peace) for re-exportation to her settlements and colonies in Mexico, the greatest part of which are shipped at, and]

[sent from, the port of Cadiz to the port of Vera Cruz, distant 201 miles from the city of Mexico.

Millions of Spanish hard Dollars.				*Pounds English Money.*
Proportion of each nation.				
15	The manufactures and products of France	- - - - - - - - -		3,375,000
8	- - do.	- -	of England	1,800,000
4	- - do.	- -	of Spain	900,000
3	- - do.	- -	of Italy	675,000
3	- - do.	- -	of Germany	675,000
3	- - do.	- -	of Flanders	675,000
2	- - do.	- -	of Holland	450,000
2	- - do.	- -	of Swisserland	450,000
40	Millions of Spanish hard dollars at 4*s.* 6*d.* English each, make			9,000,000

France supplied Spain with the following kinds of goods for Mexico, as likewise for her other settlements and colonies in America.

Jewellery of all descriptions, made in Paris of the most superb and shewy kinds. Gold watches, and ornaments for them, as chains, seals, keys, rings, &c. which they sell at very low prices, but in quality they are very inferior to those of England; nevertheless they were preferred both in Old Spain and in Spanish America, because they are shewy as well as very cheap. Gold and silver plate for the churches, and for private families. Gold and silver laces, for which the demand is immense. French white and black laces for the ladies, and likewise for church ornaments. Silk goods of all descriptions, silk velvets, &c. manufactured at Lyons, &c. are in extraordinary demand for the churches as well as for the dresses both of ladies and gentlemen. Millinery goods made in Paris. Superfine French woollen cloths, formerly excelling in blacks, blues, as well as in high colours, such as scarlets, roses, crimsons, &c. Hats, both white and black, manufactured in Paris; they are particularly calculated both for Old Spain and Spanish America. In this article of hats, the French excel, and make them light. White linens, called in Spain, Bretañas legitimas, the consumption of them is considerable, both in Old Spain and in Spanish America. Cambricks are consumed in great quantities, by the church, by ladies, and by gentlemen. All the beforementioned French goods and manufactures were in vast demand, in all the Spanish American settlements, and wonderful quantities of them, were constantly sent out, (in time of peace) which gave to France a decided superiority over England, in the value of goods sold and supplied to Spain, by these two great rival nations. This estimate, however, is more conformable to the old system of things than the present one, but will evince the precedents the French have for their estimation of this trade, which the energy of the English merchant may yet more fully rival.

The goods intended for the fair of Xalapa, the greatest in Spanish America, are sent up from Vera Cruz on the backs of mules, asses, &c.

It continues open for the sale of goods exactly six months. It is opened and proclaimed with grand public processions and other solemnities, at which immense numbers of people assist, attended by all the clergy, religious orders, &c. with bands of music, guards of soldiers, &c. On this occasion the factors and others who have goods for sale, are very liberal in their donations to the churches, in hopes thereby to insure good luck, quick sales, and large profits. These processions are repeated on the day after the fair has been closed, and the factors attend the churches in order to return thanks to the Almighty for their respective successes, when they present such further gifts to the churches as are most agreeable to themselves.

By the laws of the Spanish Indies, not any sales, even of the most trifling articles, are permitted to be made until the fair has been proclaimed, and the processions are completed; nor can any more or further sales be made after a proclamation of the close of the fair has been made, by the second display of the public processions and other ceremonies as before exhibited; which being completed, all goods and other articles whatever, which may then remain in the factor's hands unsold and undisposed of, are immediately locked up in the king's warehouses, under the management and care of the king's officers, who are appointed for that express purpose; where they must remain untouched until the next or succeeding fair has been proclaimed and opened, when they are again delivered up safe, and in good condition to their respective owners, to be again offered for sale. If the commodities prove to be such as please, attract, and suit the purchasers, the profits made thereby are frequently prodigious; frequently three to six hundred per cent. If they do not please the buyers, it becomes extremely difficult to dispose of them at any price. In the last month that this fair is kept open, the factors become very anxious and pressing to make sales on the best terms they can procure; of which disposition the purchasers naturally take every benefit and advantage.

The sales at this fair are in general made for]

[immediate payments, which consist of coined dollars, gold and silver in ingots, bars, wedges, &c. and products of the country, such as indigo, cochineal, Jesuits' bark, &c.

It very rarely happens that any credits are given with the goods sold at this fair, on account of the very great risks which the sellers would run in trusting strangers who purchase, many of them residing from 500 to 2000 miles from Xalapa.

This great fair, like those of Frankfort, Leipsic, Brunswick, and Nuremberg, has been suspended in consequence of the war, but is expected to be revived.

The indigo brought from Guatemala to this fair consists of four different qualities, all of them excellent, but the finest is superior to any other brought to Europe.

Cochineal of Mexico, without which neither purple nor scarlet colours can be produced, is found genuine in no part of the world whatever but in that viceroyality.

Quinquina, or Jesuits' bark, also brought to this fair, is a drug of the most salutary and restorative virtue that Providence, in compassion for human infirmity, has made known to man, is found only in Peru, to which it affords a most lucrative branch of commerce, and is of the highest value in a climate where the corporeal system is so much debilitated.

As all these goods, from a want of inland navigation, are carried, for the supply of the fairs and the greatest consumption of the country, on mules and the heads of Indians, the packages ought to be assorted and made up in the lightest way possible, and not to exceed 100lbs. The Indian carries and travels quickly with that weight on his head, and its doubled proportion serves to load a mule, as a package on each side is put in a kind of *arganas*, or pannier, and makes a perfect equipoise. Small bales are therefore preferable to cases, but cards ought to accompany each. The wrapper for fine goods, as those from the East Indies, ought to have oiled or waxed linings to keep out the damp.

There is an excellent highway from Vera Cruz to Mexico, over the mountains, and the road is lined with taverns and lodging-houses supported by the king, and for the convenience of travellers, whose conveyance is rendered easy by the quantity of Indians who gain a livelihood in carrying a kind of sedan chairs, in officiating as muleteers, and in bearing loads on their shoulders, with which they travel with safety and dispatch. There are guard-houses at appropriate distances, and travelling is generally safe, though not so at present, owing to the disturbed state of the country. A muleteer often receives 100 boxes of dollars with a *guia*, or certificate, which he carries to Vera Cruz without escort, a distance of better than 200 miles. Of late years also, a large causeway has been opened, to convey the indigo from Guatemala to Vera Cruz.

3. Revolution.—The source and origin of the evils that have come upon this country have been similar to those of all the other Spanish colonies. A long history might, without doubt, be written on a revolutionary war that has existed with undiminished and mutual ferocity and vigilance since 1808, but we shall confine ourselves to a brief outline of its progress. In that year we find, by the periodical work called the Español, vol. iii. p. 19, that the Spaniards became divided into two parties, upon the arrest and deposal of the viceroy Ariguay. The party who had arrested him were favoured by the central Junta, and in a short time an extensive conspiracy was formed, which exploded upon a certain violent exhibition of authority at Queretaro: more than half the kingdom were immediately in arms. The insurrection began at Dolores, on the 15th of September, 1810, in the province of Guanaxuato, in the centre of the mining country, and spread with incredible velocity in every direction. The ringleaders were chiefly priests; but many lawyers and military officers joined with them; and, what was most alarming of all, some regiments of militia. Their forces rapidly increased to armies of 30 or 40,000 men, and more; and, so popular was their cause, that, after the severest defeats, they reassembled, in a short time, with undiminished numbers. At this critical moment the viceroy Venegas arrived from Spain; and to the activity, firmness, and energy, which he displayed on this occasion, his country is indebted for the preservation of Mexico.

The insurgents having taken by assault the populous town of Guanaxuato, on the 29th of September, in which they found immense booty, advanced to Valladolid, where, on the 20th of October, they were received with demonstrations of joy; and, gathering strength as they proceeded, they passed through Toluca, and entered the plain of Mexico on the 1st of November, with an army of more than 40,000 men. Hidalgo, Allende, and their other chiefs, had great expectations from the spirit of disaffection in the capital; but the prudence of Venegas disconcerted all their schemes. Their friends within the city]

[were deterred from showing themselves by the disposition which he made of his forces; and many were detached from their cause, by the sentence of excommunication, which the archbishop, at his instigation, fulminated against them. After waiting some hours, without daring to attack the troops, who remained in their entrenchments, they retired without attempting any thing; showing upon this, as upon other occasions, a miserable want of enterprise, and deficiency of military skill. After their failure in this attempt, they were pursued by a succession of disasters. The judicious movements and well concerted attacks of Venegas baffled all their plans, and drove them from one end of the kingdom to the other. After innumerable defeats, the chiefs of the insurrection were at length surprised at Saltillo, on the 21st March, 1811, in endeavouring to make their escape into the internal provinces. Still, however, the country was not pacified. A month after the affair of Saltillo, a body of 12,000 insurgents were in arms in the neighbourhood of Queretaro, but were defeated on the 20th April, 1811.

Hidalgo's party was doomed to feel the loss of their leader, who was taken by treachery in March, in the interior provinces of Acatia de Bajan. Rayon, his lieutenant, an officer of great resolution and intrepidity, by education an attorney, punished with death the general who conducted the rear of the army, for not having supported his general. He then returned, attacked, and defeated commandant Ochoa, eight leagues from Saltillo, took Zacatecas, and passed on to Zitacuaro, where the division of Torre attacked him, but was beaten so completely that only six men escaped to carry the news. Emparan met nearly the same treatment on the 24th June, vide "El Espanol," No. 23, p. 361. He then established the National Junta in Zitacuaro, consisting of himself, Liseaga, and the curate Verdusco. In London was to be seen the proclamation issued by Calleja, by orders of the Viceroy, offering 10,000 dollars for the head of each member. Calleja went and attacked him with all the forces he could muster, and we have had published amongst us the dispatches he sent to Mexico, announcing the obstinate resistance he had met with, and dated 2d January, 1812. In the same dispatches he adds, that he had burnt and levelled the city with the ground, and proscribed its 10,000 inhabitants. The latter had got out safe with Rayon's army, which, having 12 regiments of cavalry, established itself in Zultepec, from whence 12,000 men were detached to Guanaxuato, and another considerable force to act against Valladolid.

Up to the end of this year the war was carried on with various fortune; but on January, 1812, the king's troops had succeeded in driving the insurgents, under the command of Rayon, from their fortified place at Zataguado, and towards the middle of the summer their forces were so reduced by repeated defeats, that all probability of their being able to make head again to any extent, became exceedingly doubtful. But their spirit was not yet subdued; and, on the 1st of November, Morelos, a curate, turned an insurgent chief: for two years that this man had been fighting, he had never lost an action, and he had beaten Calloja at Quantlan, in February, 1812, entered Origava with 7,000 men, when 200 of the garrison were killed, and as many taken prisoners. It is to be observed, to the credit of the general, that he gave quarter to the conquered, and treated the officers with distinction. Not a house was pillaged, nor one personal insult offered, and good order and respect of property were secured by proclamation. He ordered however the tobacco in the public stores to be burnt, on account of the royal monopoly; it was valued at 10 million dollars, being the crop of three years.

This event was heightened by the arrival of a great accession of force to the army before Mexico, under colonel Magie; and before November, Vera Cruz was so closely invested that all communication between it and the capital was impracticable. In the mean time, the province of Texas had had recourse to the *concilium domi*, without which the *arma foris* are always invalid, and lead to no definite results. After the fall of San Antonio, which was looked upon to have decided the fate of that country, they assembled a Congress, after the manner of that of Venezuela, and published a manifesto of their independence, of which the following are extracts.

"We the people of the province of Texas, calling upon the Supreme Judge of the Universe to witness the rectitude of our intentions, declare that the ties which placed us under the domination of Spain and Europe, are for ever demolished; that we possess the right to establish a government for ourselves, and that in future all legitimate authority shall emanate from the people, to whom alone it rightfully belongs, and that henceforth all allegiance or subjection to any foreign power whatever is entirely renounced.]

[" A relation of the causes which have conduced to render this step necessary is due to our dignity, and to the opinion of the world. A long series of occurrences, originating in the weakness and corruption of the Spanish rulers, has converted that country into the theatre of a sanguinary war between two contending parties, itself destined to be the prize of the victor, and the miserable wreck of its government in possession of others, it appears to have lost the substance, and almost the form of sovereignty. Unable to defend itself in the Peninsula, much less to protect its distant colonies, those colonies are abandoned to the caprice of wicked men, where there exists no power to which they may be made responsible for the abuse of their authority, or for the gains of their rapacity. Self-preservation, the highest law of nature, if no other motive would have justified this step, would have vindicated our conduct; but independent of this necessity, you candidly will acknowledge that we have cause sufficient in the suffering and oppression which we have so long endured."

After some further details, in which the destruction of their trade is exposed, the instrument concludes in these terms:

" The Spanish colonies of S. America have long since declared their independence, and the United States prove to us, by the experience of 30 years, that such a separation may be attended with national and individual prosperity.

" We conceive it a duty we owe, as well to ourselves as to our posterity, to use the moment which now offers itself to shake off the yoke of European domination, and to labour in the cause of the independence of Mexico, taking the authority into our own hands, framing laws, and placing the government of our country upon a firm and sure basis, and by these means assuming the rank which belongs to us among the nations of the world."

A decisive victory obtained over the insurgents in the neighbourhood of Arassa had caused the intercourse between Mexico and Vera Cruz to be renewed, before the spring of 1813, and the consequence was that a quantity of treasure, valued at 10 millions of dollars, immediately reached the latter port for the mother country. Hitherto the Peninsula, from the unsettled situation of its own affairs, had not been able to provide or send troops, to any amount, to her transatlantic followers; but in February of this year, 1813, 5,000 men were exported to different colonies, of whom 2,000 were landed at Vera Cruz. This mutual assistance of money from the one, and supplies and reinforcements from the other, was attended with natural advantage to both; and the Viceroy's party became so strengthened, that, according to the latest accounts, it appeared that in February of the present year, 1814, the Loyalists continued to enjoy the most decisive advantage. The Spanish general, Llano, had defeated Morelos with much loss. The latter had formed a junction with Matamoros, a Mexican ecclesiastic, remarkable for his military talents, and as a disciplinarian. They were completely beaten by Llano. The loss of the insurgents in this action was 760 men killed; among whom were 26 monks, and other ecclesiastics. The number of prisoners exceeded 700, among whom was Matamoros himself, the life and soul of the faction. He was forthwith to be tried for the murder of Don Candano, an Austrian officer of rank, whom he had caused, not long before, to be shot.

Such have hitherto been the most remarkable events of the revolution of the Spanish colonies as more particularly relating to Vera Cruz. When we consider the population of Nueva España, which, according to Humboldt, considerably exceeds six millions, we cannot but think that the chief reason why armies have not hitherto been organized to a greater extent, must arise from the difficulty of furnishing them with arms and accoutrements, especially firelocks. The greatest number of men under Morelos, at any one period, was 40,000 men. Sanchez had 60,000; not to mention others under detached leaders. No accurate enumeration of the king's troops has hitherto appeared; but, allowing them to be equal to the insurgents, we find a total of 200,000 men engaged in this bloody and interminable warfare. Much general information respecting the causes of disaffection, and their concomitant events, may be found under other articles in this work, such as Mexico, Venezuela, La Plata, &c. to which, therefore, the reader is referred.]

Vera Cruz, a small island of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and *captainship* of Todos Santos in Brasil, at the entrance of the bay.

Vera Cruz, a river of the same province, which runs near the old city, and enters the sea.

[Vera Cruz, La, an excellent harbour in the Bay of San Felipe Santiago, on the *n.* side of the island Espiritu Santo. See Tierra Austral del Espiritu Santo.]

VERAGUA, a province and government of the kingdom of Tierra Firme; one of the three of which this kingdom is composed: bounded *n.* by the province of Costarica of the kingdom of Guatemala, *e.* by that of Tierra Firme or Panamá, and *n.* and *s.* by both seas. It is 70 leagues long from *e.* to *w.*, and 34 wide from *n.* to *s.*, this being where the isthmus is widest: it is of an hot temperature, and of a country for the most part mountainous and rough; some of the heights being inaccessible, although there are not wanting *llanuras*, wherein are found various estates and grazing farms, well stocked with cattle, from the abundance of excellent pastures. In the mountains are found very many kinds of excellent wood, and plenty of wild beasts, birds, and animals; and amongst these we must note a species of small monkies, of the colour of untanned leather, and with a skin finer and softer than silk, with a crown or white circle on their heads. These animals are particularly tame; but so delicate that, if taken only the shortest distance from their native place, they are sure to die; and this too even when they arrive at Cartagena, the temperature of which place differs so little from their own. It rains almost continually in this country; and indeed there is scarcely a day passes but there are showers, attended with violent storms of thunder and lightning: in the *n.* part are the mountains, and the rains flowing down from these in various streams, form rivers and pools which render this province almost impassable, and chiefly so in the winter season. Here are many gold mines, from which great wealth has been extracted; as most particularly from the mine called De Guerrero, from the name of its discoverer: but these mines are worked but little at the present day, owing to the excessive expense of conveying materials and provisions over those very craggy *sierras*, the carriage of an *arroba* of meal being equal in its cost to the meal itself, as being effected on the shoulders of Indians. Here are very large breeds of cattle, especially of swine, and plenty of very fine sorts of wood.

This province was discovered by Christoval Columbus, in his fourth voyage, in 1503, to whom it was conceded by the Catholic King Fernando and his wife Isabella of Castilla, erecting it into a Duchy in 1537: the title, though not the property, has remained in the same family, as the province was afterwards incorporated with the crown-rights, though an equivalent was given to the former possessors. It was originally well peopled with Doraces, Guaimies, and Juries Indians, and with other nations, who lived in those mountains, like wild beasts; going naked both men and women, and subsisting on wild roots, of which there is an abundance; and particularly on a fruit which they call *pixbaex*, resembling dates; and which, roasted, are well tasted. In 1624, Adrian Wefelder, a Flemish friar, and of the order of preachers, came amongst these Indians to instruct them in the faith. He reduced many; but they returned to their heathenish customs, and retired to the mountains; nor could the Jesuits, in spite of many efforts, succeed in bringing them back to be catechised until 1760, at the instance of the Governor Don Felix Francisco Bejarano. After this the King commanded that some religious missionaries of the order of S. Francisco, and of the congregation for propagating the Faith, should be sent from Spain, and maintained them at a fixed salary, chargeable on the royal revenue; and these religious persons have already founded various settlements of the aforesaid infidels, having converted them to the faith at the expense of great labours and fatigues.

The capital of this province is the city of the same name; with the dedicatory title of Santiago. It is small, but very well situate: of a hot and moist temperature, abounding in maize, *yucas*, plantains, and cattle, and particularly in swine. The natives spin cotton, and dye it of a durable purple by the juice of a snail, found on the coast of the S. Sea; and in this article, as well as in some gold which they extract from the mines, does this city carry on a trade with the city of Panamá, the capital of the kingdom, and with the provinces of Guatemala, where both the one and the other article are highly esteemed. This city has a beautiful hospital, for which it is indebted to the zeal and labour of the Governor Don Felix Bejarano; the same person who held the reins of this government for 21 years, at the instance of the inhabitants and of the Bishop of Panamá, who made, on that subject, various representations to the King. The other settlements of the jurisdiction of this government are,

San Miguel de la Atalaya,
San Francisco de la Montaña,
San Marcelo de la Mesa,
La Ciudad de los Remedios,
San Miguel,
Ciudad de Santiago de Alanje,
San Felix,
San Lorenzo,
San Pablo,
San Joseph de Bugava,
San Miguel de Boquerón,

La Trinidad, or Rio de Jesus, Montijo, Ciudad de Pueblo Nuevo.

And of the settlements lately founded by the Missions are those of San Antonio, Dolega, and Gualaca.

VERAGUA, ESCUDO DE, an island of the N. Sea, near the coast of the former province and government, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme; discovered by admiral Christoval Columbus, in his fourth voyage. It is small, but has two good and sheltered ports; the one on the *s.* side, looking to the coast of the Continent, and the other on the *w.*: it is desert and abandoned.

VERA-PAZ, a province and *alcaldía mayor* of the kingdom of Guatemala; bounded *n.* by the province of Yucatán, *s. s. w.* and *s. e.* by that of Guatemala, from whence it is divided by the river Zacatula, *w.* by the province of Chiapa, and *e.* by the Gulf of Honduras. It is 48 leagues long from *n.* to *s.* and 27 wide from *e.* to *w.* at its widest part. The religious of St. Domingo gave it this name by order of the emperor Charles V. who commanded it to be thus named, inasmuch as its natives were reduced merely by preaching and without the help of arms.

The country is rough and broken, full of deep ravines, with a *llanura* which is half a league in extent, and covered with thick and impenetrable woods. Half of this province is of a mild and benign temperature, and the other half is hot and abounding in mosquitoes of various kinds. The rains here continue nine months in the year, and the province abounds in vegetable productions and cattle, and has many mountains covered with trees, and vast caverns in which many rivers laving the province, lose themselves. Between two lofty *sierras* is found a cave of very great extent, entirely of stone, within which are formed by the dripping of waters several pillars resembling alabastar. In this cave the cold is extraordinary, and the noise of the waters is very great, which, bursting forth at various mouths, forms a lake, which from its depth is seen to have waves like a sea, and from it rises a river, which in the small distance that it runs is not fordable. Besides the several rivers which water this province great torrents of water are seen rushing down from the most lofty rocks, forming a delightful spectacle; and thus the soil is constantly so moist that the maize rots in the ground.

This province is very subject to great tempests of thunder and lightning, strong winds, and earthquakes; and in its mountains and forests are large trees of excellent kinds of wood, imparting a balmy fragrance to the surrounding air; and amongst these we must note in particular the liquid amber of a thick and rough wood, and various kinds of balsams, *copales*, *xuchicopales*, *almacigos* and dragon plants, from which is extracted the gum called dragon's blood. Here are canes of 100 feet long, and of such thickness and size as to have at each of their knots a cavity able to contain an *arroba* of water. These canes serve as timber in building. Moreover here are Guaya-canes which are incorruptible, and another sort of wood which, sawed asunder, represents on its plane pretty vary coloured figures.

This province is extremely fertile in all European fruits and flowers; these yielding their sweets to the labours of an infinite variety and innumerable swarms of bees; some without sting and noted for making the clearest honey, others like those of Spain, and others only as large as flies, others, again, whose honey causes giddiness; with this peculiarity, however, equally attached to all, that they make no honey-comb, but work under ground, forming their nests in the roots of trees. Their honey has an acid flavour, which is got rid of in a great measure by boiling; and it is not unfrequently kept and used after the same manner as the vinegar from oranges, for several domestic purposes. The woods of this province are thronged with animals and wild beasts; the largest of these is the *danta*, as big as a calf, though somewhat short and thicker set in all its joints, which on the whole resemble those of the elephant: it has on its claws, three joints on the fore feet and four on the hind feet; the head is large, the forehead is sunk in, the eyes small and the lower jaw hangs down five or six inches, and is raised when the animal is angry, thereby discovering its teeth and tusks, which are like those of a pig: its ears are piqued, the neck is sunk in the shoulders, and the tail short with little bristles. The hide is six fingers thick, double at the loin, and, when dried, resists every kind of arms. This animal is ferocious and terrible when irritated, and with its tusks destroys every thing it meets in its course, not excepting trees of considerable strength. Here are likewise lions, tigers, bears of an enormous size, cats and mountain goats, monkeys of various kinds, wild boars, porcupines, squirrels, and a variety of other animals. Also amongst the birds are eagles, small eagles, *buairones*, sea-crows, *alcatraces*, bitterns, storks, parrots, and others esteemed for their plumage and their song. This province is also filled with vipers and snakes of various kinds. The fountains and rivers are so nume-

rous that there are 30 of the latter to be met with in the space of three leagues; and all of them run to disembogue themselves into the sea, at the gulf.

VERDE, a river of the province and government of S. Juan de los Llanos in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the *cordillera* of Peru, and in it breed the fish called *remoros*, which stop the progress of vessels.

VERDE, another river, in the province and government of Atacames or Esmeraldas, in the kingdom of Quito, which runs into the S. Sea, in the Bay of Tola.

VERDE, another, of the same province and kingdom as the former, rising in the jurisdiction of the *corregimiento* of Otavalo, running *n.* and entering the Guaillabamba.

VERDE, another, of the province and *corregimiento* of Tacunga in the same kingdom. It rises *s.* of this city, runs *s.* and enters the Pastaza very near its source.

VERDE, another, of the province and country of Las Amazonas in the territory of Matrogoso. It rises in the province of the Chiquitos, to the *w.* of the settlement of San Ignacio, runs *n.* and enters the Itenes or Guaporé.

VERDE, another, of the province of the Apaches in the kingdom of Nuevo Mexico, which runs *s.* and enters the Salado before this joins the Gila.

VERDE, another, of the province and government of Paraguay in Peru, which rises in the country of the Zamucos Indians, from different streams, runs *s. e.* and enters the Paraguay opposite the Mboeri.

VERDE, another, of the province and *captainship* of Puerto Seguro in Brazil, which rises in the mountains near the coast, runs *w.* and turning afterwards its course to *n.* enters the grand river of San Francisco close to the *real* of mines of Cardoso.

VERDE, another, of St. Domingo, which rises near the *n.* coast, between the cities of La Vega and Santiago, runs *w.* and enters the grand river of Yaque or Santiago.

VERDE, another, of the province and *captainship* of Sergipe in Brazil, which rises in the territory of the Cayapos Indians, runs *s. s. e.* and enters by the *n* side into the Paraná, just below the entrance of the Mapandi.

VERDE, another, of the province and government of Buenos Ayres in Peru, which runs *w.* and enters the Paraná, between the Cavayú and the Feliciano.

VERDE, another, of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *s. e.* then turns its course to *e.* and enters the Paraguay.

VERDE, another, a small river of the same province and government as the former, which runs *s. s. e.* and enters the Amambay.

VERDE, another, of the province and *corregimiento* of Tacunga in the kingdom of Quito, with the additional title of Segundo, to distinguish it from the last-mentioned. It has the same course, rises near it, and runs in the same direction.

VERDE, a settlement, called Rio Verde, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán, of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Valles.

VERDE, a small island of the S. Sea near the coast of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Penonomé in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, and opposite the settlement of Capira.

VERDE, another island in the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Cartagena and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the side of the mouth of the river Grande de la Magdalena.

VERDE, another, a small island of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of La Vera Cruz, and of the Rio de Alvarado in Nueva España, not far distant from the island of Sacrificios.

VERDE, another, a small island, also of the N. Sea, near the coast of the island of Cuba, and of the Lucayas; between Long Island and that of St. Andrew.

VERDE, another, also small, and in the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Cumaná, between the islands Testigos and Frayles.

VERDE, a point of land or cape on the coast of the province and *corregimiento* of Truxillo in Peru, and in the S. Sea.

VERDE, another cape, on the *e.* coast of the Strait of Magellan, between the river of Agua Buena and the port of Papagayos.

VERDE, a bay, called also De las Cuerdas and Del Conde, according to the chart of Poncho Chileno. It is on the same coast of the Strait of Magellan, to the *n.*

[VERDE, Porto, or VEDRA, is on the N. Atlantic Ocean, about 4½ leagues *s. e.* by *e.* of Rio Roxo. The Island of Blydones is at the entrance of this port, round which ships may sail on any side, there being seven fathom on the *n.* where it is shoalest, and 20 fathoms on the *s.* side, where is the best entrance into the river. This is a port of good trade, and sometimes large

ships put in here. The islands of Bayonne are five leagues to the *s.* of the island in the mouth of the port.]

[VERDERONE, or LA BOURLADERIE, an island on the *e.* coast of Cape Breton Island. It is seven or eight leagues long; and at each end is a channel, through which the waters of the Labrador lakes, in the inner part of Cape Breton Island, discharge into the ocean on the *e.*]

VERE, a settlement and parish of the English in the island of Jamaica, on the shore of the Bay of Manury, the which from its convenience is much frequented by vessels, which here lie completely sheltered.

VERENGUELA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Pacajes in Peru, celebrated for its rich silver-mine, which has produced exceeding wealth. Here are also mines of talc, which yield great profit, furnishing enough of the said article to make the windows of houses and temples throughout the kingdom.

VERETES, a settlement and parish of the French in the island of St. Domingo, dependent on the district and jurisdiction of Cape Frances.

VERGARA, a settlement of the district of Chanco in the kingdom of Chile, on the shore of the stream Chimbarongo.

VERGARA, a river of the district of the island of La Laxa in the same kingdom. It runs *w.* and turning to *n. n. w.* enters, very abundant, into the Biobio, near the fort of Nacimiento.

[VERGENNES, a post-town, and one of the most growing and commercical towns of Vermont, in Addison County on Otter Creek, about six miles from its mouth in Lake Champlain. It is regularly laid out, and contained in 1790, a Congregational church and about 60 houses. In its neighbourhood are several mills. It is 80 miles *n.* of Bennington, and 18 *s.* of Burlington. The township contained 201 inhabitants in the above year.]

VERINA, a small settlement of the province and government of Cumaná, in the district and jurisdiction of this city, from whence it is 30 leagues to *e. s. e.* It is celebrated for the excellent tobacco which it produces.

VERISIMO, a river of the province and *captainship* of Espiritu Santo in Brazil, which rises in the mountains of the interior, runs very abundantly to the *s.* and enters the Paraná just after its rising.

VERMEJA, SIERRA, a *cordillera* of very lofty mountains, of the province and *captainship* of Puerto Seguro in Brazil. They run *n.* between the source of the river Hondo or San Francisco, and that of Las Velhas.

VERMEJA, another *sierra*, in the same kingdom as is the above *cordillera*, and a continuation of the *sierra* of Los Coriges, between the river of this name and the Araguaya.

VERMEJA, a river of the province and government of Quixos and Macas in the kingdom of Quito. It enters the San Miguel and has a good port, from which vessels drop down to enter the Putumayo.

VERMEJAS, a river of the province and *captainship* of Rio Grande, in the same kingdom as the former *sierras*. It rises near the coast, runs *n. n. w.* and enters the sea close to the point of Tiburon.

VERMEJAS. Some small islands near the coast of the province and *captainship* of Espiritu Santo in the same kingdom; situate on the side of the island of Los Franceses.

VERMEJO, a river of the province and government of Tucumán, called also Rio Grande. It rises in the mountains of Taya, runs *s. e.* collecting the waters of many other rivers in its course, and passing between those of Xujui and Salta, enters very abundantly into the Plata, opposite the city of Corrientes, according to the Peruvian geographer Don Cosme Bueno; the Ex-Jesuit Coleti asserting that it enters the Paraná by the *w.* part, a little below the mouth of the Paraguay, in lat. 27° 22′ *s.*; [but according to the most accurate geographers it enters the Paraguay about 40 miles before this river joins the Paraná. Its mouth is in lat. 26° 45′ *s.*]

VERMEJO, PUERTO DE, a point of land on the coast of the S. Sea, and in the province and *corregimiento* of Truxillo in Peru.

VERMEJO, a very lofty mountain, called Cerro Vermejo, in the province and *captainship* of Seara and kingdom of Brazil, near the coast and the river Upamena.

VERMIGLION, a river of the province and government of Louisiana, which rises between the Missouri and the Osages, runs *n. e.* and enters the former.

[VERMILLAS, BARREYERAS, on the coast of Brazil, between the island of St. John's and Sypomba Island, which are seven leagues asunder. Here is a large bay with good anchorage.]

[VERMILLION, PURPLE, or RED SEA, a name given by some to the Gulf of California.]

[VERMILLION, Point, called also Long Point, is the peninsula between Bay Puan and Lake Michigan.]

[Vermillion River, in the N. W. Territory, runs *n. w.* into Illinois River, nearly opposite the *s. w.* end of Little Rocks, and 267 miles from the Mississippi, by the meanderings. It is 30 yards wide, but so rocky as not to be navigable.]

[Vermillion Indians, reside 220 miles up the Miami of the Lake.]

[VERMONT, one of the United States of America, lies between lat. 42° 42′ and 45° *n.* and between long. 71° 28′ and 73° 25′ *w.* It is bounded *n.* by Lower Canada, *e.* by New Hampshire, from which it is separated by Connecticut River, *s.* by Massachusetts, and *w.* by the State of New York. No part of the State is nearer than 70 or 80 miles of any part of the ocean. Computing by the latitudes, the length of the State from the *s.* to the *n.* boundary is 138 miles; the mean width from *e.* to *w.* is about 55 miles. It is divided into 11 counties, viz. those on Connecticut River from *s.* to *n.* are Windham, Windsor, Orange, Caledonia, and Essex; in a similar direction, along the New York line, are the counties of Bennington, Rutland, Addison, Chittenden, and Franklin, between which last and Essex, lies the county of Orleans, on the *n.* line of the State. These are subdivided into upwards of 230 townships, which are generally six miles square. In each township is a reserve of two rights of land of 350 acres each, the one for the support of schools, the other to be given in fee to the first minister who settles in the township. A part of the townships were granted by the governor of New Hampshire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In those townships granted by the former, a right of land is reserved for the support of the Gospel in foreign parts; in those granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the support of country grammar-schools, are reserved. In these reservations, liberal provision is made for the support of the Gospel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education. Windsor, on the *e.* side of the Green Mountains; and Rutland, on the *w.* side; both nearly in the centre of the settled parts of the State from *n.* to *s.* are, according to an act of the legislature, to be alternately the seat of government, till about the year 1800. Both are flourishing towns. In 1790, according to the census then taken, the number of inhabitants in this State was 85,589. By the census of 1810, it was 217,913. The people are an industrious, brave, hardy, active, frugal race.

The soil is deep, and of a dark colour, rich, moist, warm, and loamy. It bears corn and other kinds of grain in large quantities as soon as it is cleared of the wood, without any ploughing or preparation; and after the first crops, naturally turns to rich pasture or mowing. The face of the country exhibits very different prospects.—Adjoining to the rivers there are the wide extensive plains of a fine level country. At a small distance from them the land rises into a chain of high mountains, intersected with deep and long vallies. Descending from the mountains, the streams and rivers appear in every part of the country, and afford a plentiful supply of water. Through this State there is one continual range of mountains, which are called the Green Mountains, from their perpetual verdure, and gives name to the State. They extend from Lower Canada *s.* through the States of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, and terminate within a few miles of the sea-coast. Their general direction is from *n. n. e.* to *s. s. w.* and their extent is through a tract of country not less than 400 miles in length. They are generally from 10 to 15 miles in breadth; are much intersected with vallies; abound with springs and streams of water, and are covered with woods. Kellington Peak, one of the highest of the Green Mountains, is 3,454 feet above the level of the ocean.

All the streams and rivers of Vermont rise among the Green Mountains; about 35 of them have an *e.* direction, and fall into Connecticut River; about 25 run *w.* and pay tribute to Lake Champlain. Two or three running in the same direction fall into Hudson's River. In the *n. e.* parts of the State, four or five streams have a *n.* direction, and discharge their waters into Lake Memphremagog; from thence through the river St. Francis, they communicate with the river St. Lawrence. The most considerable on the *w.* side of the Green Mountains, are Otter Creek, Onion River, La Moille, and Mischiscoui. On the *e.* side of the Green Mountains, the rivers are not so large as those on the *w.* but they are more numerous. The largest are Wantastiquek, or West River, White River, and Poousoomsuck.

The earth is generally covered with snow from the middle of December to the middle of March, and in some high lands, to the depth of four or five feet. Since the country has been cleared, the winters have proved milder. Vegetation advances in the spring with great rapidity.

Iron and lead ores of several kinds, pipe-clay, which has been wrought into durable crucibles, and quarries of white, grey, and variegated marble, have been found in different parts of this State. The trade of Vermont is principally to Boston, Hartford, and New York; to which

places the inhabitants export horses, beef, pork, butter, cheese, wheat, flour, iron, nails, pot and pearl-ashes. Great advantages may accrue to Vermont, from the manufactures of iron. Large quantities of iron-ore are found in several of the towns on the *w.* side of the Green Mountains. Tinmouth, Rutland, Pittsford, and Shoreham, contain great quantities. The ore in these towns is of a reddish kind, mixed with earth, tinctured with yellow ore. It melts easily, and produces from one-fourth to one-seventh of iron. The iron is mostly of the Coldshire kind; works easily, and makes excellent nails. The principal part of the ore hitherto used, has been brought from a mountain on the *w.* side of Lake Champlain, about four miles *n.* of Crown Point. Some grains of pure iron, nearly as big as a pea, have been found in this ore. This ore is so peculiarly rich, that, when well managed, it will yield four-sevenths of pure iron, but is very hard to melt. In 1792, several forges and furnaces were erected. In Bennington County they had one forge, in Rutland County 14, in Addison County four, and in Chittenden County two. In addition to which there were three furnaces in Rutland County.—From these great quantities of bar-iron and nails were made. Nature, indeed, seems to have designed this part of the United States to be the seat of flourishing manufactures of every thing that can be made of iron or steel. The other chief manufactures are pot and pearl-ashes, maple sugar, and spirits distilled from grain. Most families manufacture a considerable part of their clothing. In no country is common education more attended to. In this respect the conduct of the people is laudable and exemplary. A charter for a richly endowed university was granted by the legislature of this State, in 1791, to be established at Burlington; and 33,000 acres of land have been reserved, in the several grants made by this State, for the use of the university.

In 1792, the state of the militia was a follows, 20 regiments of infantry, divided into eight brigades, and four divisions; 15 companies of cavalry, and six companies of artillery; the whole computed at 18,500. The present number has not kept pace with the increased population.—Vermont sends two representatives to Congress, and has been settling only since about the year 1764. The Indians were never numerous here, and at present it is entirely destitute of them.]

VERNAL, a small island of the S. Sea, near the coast of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Teguantepeque in Nueva España. It is very close to the continent.

[VERNON, a place in Sussex County, New Jersey, *e.* of the source of Wall Kill, and about 21 miles *n. e.* of Newtown.]

[Vernon, Mount. See Mount Vernon.]

VEROA, a small lake of the province and country of Las Amazonas, in the territory possessed by the Portuguese. It is a pool, formed from the river Marañon, between those of Coari and Cuchivara.

VERQUE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chichas and Tarija in Peru, and of the district and division of the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Talina.

VERRAMA, a small river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia, which rises in the country and territory of the Carinnacas Indians, runs *n.* and enters the Ventuavi.

[VERRETTES, a settlement in the French part of the island of St. Domingo, on the *s. w.* bank of Artibonite River; four miles *s.* by *e.* of the settlement of Petit Riviere.]

[VERSAILLES, the chief town of Woodford County, Kentucky; situate on a small stream which falls into Kentucky River. It contained, in 1790, a court-house, stone gaol, and about 30 houses, and lies 12 miles *w.* by *s.* of Lexington.]

[VERSHIRE, a township of Vermont, Orange County, adjoining Fairlee. It contained 439 inhabitants, in 1790.]

VERT, a small port of the *s.* coast of Nova Scotia; between Ragged and Rosway Islands.

Vert, a large sand-bank of the coast of the island of Newfoundland, which serves for the cod-fisheries, and lies between the bank of Whale and Middle Bank.

Vert, a bay on the *e.* coast of the island of Newfoundland, between the island of Bacaillon and Cape Flamborough.

Vert, another, on the *e.* coast of Newfoundland, between Cape St John and the island of St. Barbara.

Vert, another, on the *n.* coast of Nova Scotia, between the Bay of Borchaps and Saints Cape.

[Vert Bay, or Green Bay, in the Straits of Northumberland, in N. America, opens to the *n. e.* opposite St. John's Island. The head of the bay approximates within 12 miles of the north-easternmost branch of the Bay of Fundy. It is about 10 leagues to the *n. w.* of Tatamagauche Harbour, and serves in part to separate

the British provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.]

VERT, a point of land or cape on the coast of Newfoundland, within Plaisance Bay.

VERT, a small island of the N. Sea, near the *s.* coast of Nova Scotia, opposite St. Margaret's Bay.

VERT, a small river, of the province and government of Louisiana; which runs *e.* and unites itself with the St. Pierre.

VERT, another river, of the province and colony of N. Carolina, which runs *s. s. w.* and enters the Conhaway.

[VESAY CAPE, in the township of Mary's-burgh, on Lake Ontario, Upper Canada, is the *n.* point, which makes Prince Edward's Bay.]

[VESSEL BAY, on the *e.* shore of Lake Champlain, sets up to the *n. e.* in the township of Charlotte, in Vermont.]

VEUVE, BANK OF THE, a large shoal of sand, of the island Micklon, at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

VIACHA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Pacages in Perú.

VIAMON, a town of the province and *captainship* of Rey in Brasil; on the shore of the river Grande.

VIAPI, a small arm of the River Orinoco, which communicates with the River Zacri, close to Ciudad Real.

VIAVIA, a small river, of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia, in the territory possessed by the Dutch.

VICHADA, a large and rapid river, of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It flows down from the mountains of Bogotá, runs *e.* through the *llanos* of Cazanare, and enters the Orinoco.

VICENTE, S. a province and *captainship* of the kingdom of Brasil: bounded *n.* by the republic of San Pablo, and by the *captainship* of Rio Janeyro; *e.* by the same *captainship* and by the sea, *w.* by the Rio Grande, and *s. w.* by the province of Gairá of the government of Paraguay, extending 50 leagues along the coast; [its length from *n.* to *s.* being about 300 miles, and its breadth in some places near 180, though for the greatest part not more than half that number.]

It was ceded by King Juan III. of Portugal to Martin Alfonzo de Sousa, in reward for his splendid services in the Indies. He established a government here after incredible difficulties, owing to the opposition of the natives, who all preferred death to subjection; but he at last founded in an island, the towns of San Vicente and of Los Santos. This province was the first established by the Portuguese in America; and, after a few years, became one of the most opulent for its sugar-mills and manufactures, thus providing with necessaries all the other settlements of Brasil; but it is at the present day (anno 1789) fallen into such a state of dilapidation as to be merely the shadow of its former greatness. The town of San Vicente lost also the quality of a capital, the church itself becoming reduced to the small chapel of San Antonio. Its trade, however, in hams still remained to it; and these are as fine as any of Europe, the breeds of swine being very large, and the natives making use of their skins for leather in preference to the hides of other animals. Here are plenty of cattle of all sorts, as also of fish and shell-fish, and of oysters so large as that their shells usually serve for plates; one of these shells having been of so extravagant a size as to have served for a palanquin to the Bishop Don Pedro Leitavon. The temperature of this province is hot and little healthy, produces some sugar-canes, of which it makes sugar and conserves of various fruits; cotton and brasil-wood, although all but in moderation. It is watered by several rivers; the most considerable of which are the Tapuca, Guarauba, Guapura, Virigi, and Una. It has in its district the islands of San Amaro, Cananea, San Sebastian, and Los Santos, in which is the capital. The interior of the country is uncultivated and full of woods, in which dwell some infidel Arapes and Tupiguies Indians. Before the entrance of the Portuguese it was possessed by the Guaynazes, who were very valorous, but who are now extinct. It now belongs to the house of the Marquises of Cascaes, and contains only 800 inhabitants. Its settlements are,

S. Vicente,	Penhamunhangaba,
Santos,	Goaratinguitá,
Parati,	Corutuba,
Ubatuba,	Sorocaba,
Igoape,	Utú,
Paranagoa,	Jundiahi,
Cananea,	Paranaiba,
Rio de S. Francisco,	Taubate,
Alaquna,	Mongi.
Jacarahi,	

The countries bounding the *n.* of S. Vicente are inhabited by savage nations, and extend to 22 and to 27′ *s.* lat. [This province was much neglected till the discovery of the gold mines

in 1735, since which it has been benefited by the addition of a key, and several fortresses erected for its defence, on the *n.* side of Rio de la Plata. This part of the province is far, however, from being yet sufficiently peopled, as there are only a few scattered villages on the sea-coast. The inhabitants carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, whom they furnish with rum and tobacco of their own growth, and with cloths, silks, linens, and brandy, from Europe. The commerce of S. Vicente, which is carried on through Rio de Janeiro, consists in black cattle, hogs, sugar, tobacco, and spirits.]

VICENTE, S. a city of the former province, and once the capital; situate in the island of Los Santos. It was formerly very rich, and enjoyed a great commerce: it has a commodious and secure port with a good bottom, though not fit for large vessels: it is also defended with a well furnished castle, but the temperature is hot and sickly. The cathedral church is rather handsome, being a bishopric suffragan to San Salvador: [on the whole this town may be considered well fortified. Its present population may be reckoned at 3,000 souls] in *s.* lat. 24°.

VICENTE, S. island. See ST. VINCENT.

VICENTE, S. a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Coatlán and *alcaldía mayor* of Miahuatlán, in Nueva España.

VICENTE, S. another, of the province and government of Maracaibo, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the river St. Domingo, nearly to the *s.* of Barinas Nueva. It is one of the settlements of the missions of this city, which are held under the charge of the religious of San Francisco.

VICENTE, S. another, of the province and *corregimiento* of Chichas and Tariga, in Perú.

VICENTE, S. another, a parish of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, in lat. 35° 2′ 20″ and long. 58′ 26′ 30″.

VICENTE, S. a small but convenient and secure port on the coast of the province and *corregimiento* of Quillota and kingdom of Chile; situate behind the Bay of Concepcion.

VICENTE, S. a cape or point of land on the coast of the Tierra del Fuego, in the Strait of Magellan; one of those which form the entrance of the strait of its name.

VICENTE, S. another Cape, called also of Supstakes, on the *s.* coast of the Strait of Magellan: one of those which form the second narrow pass of the strait, which is called Barranca de San Simon.

VICHI, a river of the province and government of Atacames or Esmeraldas, in the kingdom of Quito. It runs *n.* and enters the Guaillabamba just before this runs into the S. Sea.

VICHUQUEN, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Maule, in the kingdom of Chile. It has a convent of the religious of San Francisco, with the dedicatory title of San Pedro de Alcántara; and also two chapels of ease.

VICIOSA, LA, a shoal or isle of the coast of the N. Sea, in the province and government f Costa Rica and kingdom of Guatemala.

VICIOSAS, some islands of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Yucatán, opposite the Cape of Catoche: they are many, and all small.

VICO, a settlement of the province and government of Tarma in Perú, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Tasco, between the Lakes Lauricocha and Chinchaicocha.

VICTOR, VALLE DEL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Arequipa in Perú, on the sea coast.

VICTOR, VALLE DEL, a river of this province, called Quebrada del Victor. It rises in the valley aforesaid, and enters the S. Sea, united with the river Chile.

VICTOR, VALLE DEL, a port of the S. Sea, on the coast of the province and *corregimiento* of Arica in Perú, in *s.* lat. 18° 47′.

VICTORIA, a city of the province and government of Mariquita, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; founded by Hernando de Salinas in 1553, in a wood at the skirt of a mountain, this spot having been selected as abounding in gold mines; but, when the working of these mines fell off, the city was removed by the agreement of the inhabitants to some neighbouring *llanuras*. Afterwards, through some private litigations in the families of the Hospinas and Salcedos, it became entirely lost, its population removing to join themselves with that of Mariquita, from whence it was situate, at a distance of 29 miles, and being about 80 *n. w.* of Santa Fé.

VICTORIA, a town of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Tabasco, in the kingdom of Guatemala; founded in 1519 by Hernan Cortés, who gave it this name in memory of the victory gained by the Indians. It is small and poor; situate on the sea coast of the Gulf of Campeche: it has a small castle or fort for its defence, and is 60 leagues from Campeche.

VICTORIA, a settlement, with the dedicatory

title of San Francisco, in the province and *corregimiento* of Calca and Lares in Perú; situate in a rough and very mountainous territory. It was, at its first foundation, a very populous and rich city, owing to the many silver mines in its neighbourhood, from whence it derived infinite wealth; and it is memorable as well as for having been the retreat of the last *inca* of Perú, as for the martyrdom of the venerable father Diego Ortiz, of the order of S. Augustin, at the hands of the Indians, whilst he was preaching to them the gospel, in 1586. It is now fallen into such decay and poverty as to be nothing but a small village, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Vilcabamba: 20 leagues *e.* of Cazco.

Victoria, another, with the name of Santa Maria de la Victoria del Prado de Talavera de Niriúa, in the province and government of Venezuela and Nuevo Reyno de Granada; founded in 1617 by Pedro Gutierrez de Lugo, by order of the governor Don Francisco de la Hoz Berrio, in the valley of Aragua and province of the Teques Indians. Here it was that all those natives assembled who escaped the destructive influence of the small-pox, which raged here, and nearly depopulated the province, in 1580. This settlement is near where the *real* of gold mines of Nuestra Señora, discovered by Gabriel de Avila in 1573, formerly stood. [It lies on the road from Tulmero to Caracas, six leagues from the former place. When first founded by the missionaries, it was peopled entirely by Indians, but it has now a great many white inhabitants, its population amounting to 7,800 souls. It is nevertheless but a scattered town, (situate mostly in a plain) interspersed with garden trees; some of the streets contain houses equal to those of Caracas. The church, both for size and beauty, rivals the finest cathedrals of America. The inhabitants applied to government to create their town into a city, with a *cabildo*; but this petition not being complied with, Victoria continues a village, under the government of a justice and a *regidor*. It is the residence of the general officers of the militia of the vallies of Aragoa. Depons asserts, that the inhabitants are excessively fond of gaming, but that they are by far more active than the people of many other parts of the province.]

Victoria, another, called Nuestra Señora de la Victoria de Los Nadadores; one belonging to the missions held by the religious of S. Francisco, in the province of Coaguila; founded on the shore of the river of its name, seven leagues *w.* by *n.* of the town of Monclova.

Victoria, another, of the province and *captainship* of Los Ilheos, in Brasil; situate on the coast at the entrance of the port and river of Los Ilheos.

Victoria, another, in the province and *captainship* of Espiritu Santo, in the same kingdom as the former.

Victoria, an island, near the extremity of the *s.* coast, in the Strait of Magellan.

Victoria, a cape or point of land on the same coast of the Strait of Magellan.

[VICTORY, a township of Vermont, situated in Essex County, and bounded *e.* by Guildhall, on Connecticut River.]

VIDES, a small river of the province and *corregimiento* of Pasto, in the kingdom of Quito; which enters, a little after its rising, into the Putumayo.

VIEJA, La, a settlement of the province and government of Nicaragua, in the kingdom of Guatimala. It is very close to Realejo, and 30 leagues from the town of San Miguel.

VIEJO, Creek of, on the coast of the S. Sea, in the province and *corregimiento* of Nasca, in Perú.

Viejo, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Ibarra, in the kingdom of Quito; in the vicinity of which is a large estate, called La Concepcion.

Viejo, another, a small settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Alausi, in the same kingdom as the former; situate *s.* of the settlement of Tiscán, and near the lake.

VIEJOS, Puerto de los, a port on the coast of the S. Sea, of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay, in Perú.

VIELLARD, Creek. See Old Man's.

Viellard, Port. See Old Man's.

[VIENNA, a port of entry and post-town of the *e.* shore of Maryland, Dorchester County, on the *w.* side of Nanticoke River, about 14 miles from its mouth. It contained, in 1790, about 30 houses, and carries on a brisk trade with the neighbouring sea-ports, in lumber, corn, wheat, &c. Its foreign exports in 1794 amounted to 1,667 dollars: it is 15 miles *n. w.* of Salisbury, 22 *s. s. e.* of Easton, and 63 *s. e.* of Washington.]

[Vienna, the capital of Green County, Kentucky; situate on the *n.* side of Green River, about 135 miles *w. s. w.* of Lexington, and about 22 miles from the mouth of Green River, in the Ohio.]

VIENTO, Lomas del, mountains of the province and government of Mérida, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; of the district and jurisdiction of Pamplona, to the *s.* of this city. They are thus called from the continual and fresh winds which prevail there.

Viento, a strand of the coast of the N. Sea, in the province and government of Cartagena and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, between the Point of Piedras and that of Venados.

VIEU-CAP, a cape or point of land of the *s.* coast of Nova Scotia or Acadia, between the capes Rage and Hollibut.

VIEU-PORT, a port of the same province and coast as the former cape, and close to the same cape.

VIEU-ISLE, an island of the same coast and province as the former port; at the mouth or entrance of the same.

VIEUX, a fort of the province of Nova Scotia or Acadia, in the United States of America; situate on the *s.* coast, at the mouth of the river Heve.

VIGIA, a small river of the province and *captainship* of Pará, in Brasil, which runs *n. n. w.* and enters the arm of the river Las Amazonas, which forms the island of Marayo or Marajo, between the rivers Arreta and Tuma.

Vigia, a lake of this province, on the shore of the former river, and of the arm of that of Las Amazonas. Close to it is a fort built by the Portuguese, to defend the entrance of the said river.

Vigia, a small island; situate at the mouth of the lake of Maracaibo, close to that of Palomas, in the province and government of Venezuela and Nuevo Reyno de Granada.

VILAFRO, a lake of the province and *corregimiento* of Collahuas, in Perú, near Cailloma. It is a league in circumference, and empties itself into a channel, which furnishes, upon occasion, with water the mills for grinding the metal from the mines of gold, silver, and copper.

VILA-VILA, a settlement and *asiento* of mines of its name, in the province and *corregimiento* of Lampa, of Perú; annexed to the curacy of Pucará.

VILCABAMBA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cotabamba, in Perú; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chuquibamba.

Vilcabamba, another settlement, in the province and *corregimiento* of Calca and Lares, in the same kingdom.

Vilcabamba, another, of the province and *corregimiento* of Angaraes, in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Conaica.

Vilcabamba, another, of the province and government of Loxa, in the kingdom of Quito; situate near the settlement of Chapamara.

Vilcabamba, another, of the province and government of Tarma, in the kingdom of Perú; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chacayán.

Vilcabamba, a river, of the province and *corregimiento* of Calca and Lares, in the same kingdom as the former settlement. It rises *n.* of the town of San Francisco de la Victoria, runs to this rhumb; and enters the Paucartambo, in the territory of the missions of Caxamarquilla.

VILCAMAYO, a large and abundant river of Perú, which rises in the province and *corregimiento* of Lampa to the *w.* of the capital; runs *n. n. w.*, watering in its course the provinces of Quispu, Canches, Quispicanchi, and Calca and Lares; and, in the territory of the missions of Caxamarquilla, unites itself with the Paucartambo; to enter the Apurimac. It has also the name of Coporaque.

VILCANCHO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Vilcas Huaman, in Perú; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Totos.

VILCANOTA, Cordillera de, a branch of the great *cordillera* of the Andes of Perú; which run for many leagues from *s. w.* to *n. e.* serving as a division and as limits to the provinces of Carabaya and Canes and Canches.

VILCAPUQUIO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Oruro, in Perú; 26 leagues from its capital.

VILCAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Vilcas Huaman, in Perú; situate near a mountain, from whence it is named. In its vicinity, or about a league's distance, is a temple dedicated to St. John the Baptist, which, in the times of the gentilism, was dedicated to the sun. This temple is so large and sumptuous, and the stones of which it is composed are so immense, that there are not wanting some authors to assert that it was the labour of giants; and this the more particularly, as the said stones must have been brought from very distant parts; and as the Indians, who were living here at the time of the conquest by the Spaniards, were of powers little conformable to the labours of a

similar enterprise. Just opposite to this temple are to be seen also the ruins of a great place of arms, surrounded with wrought stone. At the end of a small valley, called Pomacocha, at no great distance off, are seen the ruins of the palaces of the *inca* also of stone; and near to them the ruins of some buildings, which served as lodging-places for his family, and for the *caziques* of his suite.

VILCAS, a river of the same province and *corregimiento* as the former settlement. It rises in the mountains of the Andes, in *s.* lat. 14° 17′, runs *n. e.*; and, after collecting the waters of many other rivers, and often changing its name, enters by the *s.* part into the Marañon or Amazon. The lands which it bathes are very fertile and delightful; and are where the Incas had many buildings and forts, of which the vestiges still remain.

VILCAS-HUAMAN, a province and *corregimiento* of Perú; bounded *n.* by the province of Huanta and jurisdiction of Guamanga; *n. w.* by the province of Castro Virreyna; *s. w.* by that of Lucanas, and *e.* and *n. e.* by that of Andahuailas. Its territory is a ravine of 24 leagues long and 18 wide, and through it runs a river, called there Calcamayo, which, at its exit, is very large, as being joined in its course by several streams, which flow down on either side. This province takes its name from a mountain, or very lofty territory thus called. Its temperature throughout a great part of it is mild and very healthy, although in the low parts bordering upon the river very hot. In these parts grow sugar-canes, plantains, and other fruits and herbage; also *aji* and cotton. In various districts are cultivated, according to the different temperatures, other vegetable productions and seeds, such as wheat, maize, and papas, &c. Here are found all kinds of large and small cattle, of the wools of which, and of that brought from other parts, they fabricate much cloth of the country, baizes, serges, &c. In the farms which abound here, are many animals, called Vicuñas; and, in former times, some silver mines were worked, although none are now known of. Although, as we have before observed, the country is healthy, the deaths of the Indians are very frequent in the months between November and March, through the intermitting fevers, which they call *ucchu*, and to which they are accustomed through want of proper diet and attention. It is, nevertheless, very populous; since its inhabitants amount to 5,000. Its *corregidor* had a *repartimiento* of 92,400 dollars, and it paid an *alcabala* of 739 dollars annually to the king. The capital is the settlement of Cangallo, and the others of its jurisdiction, are the following:

Vilcas,	Chumbes,
Vizchongo,	Ocros,
Zancos,	Lucanamarca,
Canaria,	Canchacancha,
Hualla,	Espite,
Huancapi,	Cocas,
Huancarailla,	Pomatambo,
Chuschi,	Sacsamarca,
Totos,	Apongo,
Tomanga,	Tiquihua,
Paras,	Casara,
Cangallo,	Mayobamba,
Huancarucma,	Cachi,
Huambalpa,	Quilla,
Acomarca,	Pitahua,
Huanmarca,	Sarhua,
Cocha,	Auquilla,
Huarcas,	Huaroaya,
Concepcion,	Vilcancho,
Chacamarca,	Putica.

VILCAPAMPA, a settlement of the *cordillera* of the Andes to the *e.* of Cuzco; to which place the Inca Manco Capac II. emperor of Perú, retired, after having attempted, in vain, to recover his empire from the Spaniards, who were in Cuzco; besieging them with an army of 200,000 Indians, for the space of two years.

VILCHES, a river of the province and government of Florida; which runs *w.* and enters the sea in the Bay of Mexico; between the rivers of Valisa and San Pedro.

VILQUE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Lampa, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Mañaso.

VILQUE, another settlement, in the province and *corregimiento* of Chilques and Masques, of the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Omacha.

VILQUES, S. PEDRO DE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Paucartambo, in the same kingdom as the former.

VILUYA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas, in Perú; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chiliquin.

VILLA, LA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Tunja, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river Grande de la Magdalena.

VILLA-ALTA, a jurisdicton and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España; one of those of the greatest extent, and one the most productive. Its territory is very fertile and rich in grain and

seeds, and particularly in cochineal and cotton, these being the principal sources of its riches; and of the latter article are made some blankets, which are much esteemed, and in great request throughout the kingdom. It is also in cotton that the Indians pay their tribute. This jurisdiction produces likewise *vaynilla* and *mixe*, which is a species of wild tobacco. The Indian women make also of cotton their *guepiles*, or ordinary clothing. In this jurisdiction are various estates, in which are considerable breeds of large cattle; and in the mountains are abundance of exquisite woods serviceable for many purposes.

VILLA-ALTA, the capital is the settlement of its name, with the dedicatory title of San Ildefonso; situate in the centre of the jurisdiction, of a various and unequal temperature, and being inhabited by 26 families of Spaniards and *Mustees*, and 20 of Indians; and, although it wants both for vegetable productions and cattle, it is not without commerce; but at it meet trading parties from all the settlements of its jurisdiction. It is 105 leagues from Mexico. The other settlements of its juridiction are the following:

Lachirrio,
Temascalapa,
Yalahuy,
Taguis,
Yetzicubi,
Ruallaga,
Betaja,
Yabaa,
Chita,
Yalalá,
Caxones,
San Pedro,
San Mateo,
Theotalzingo,
Petlapa,
Nobani,
Tocabela,
Tipinapa,
Yocotepec,
Lalama,
Comaltepec,
Lachixoba,
Atitlan,
Alotepec,
Ayacatepec,
Sacaltepec,
Metaltepec,
Ocotepec,
Jayacatepec,
Jare,
Metepec,
Sochila,
Sochina,
Jopa,
Yahuyo,
Yeloxi,
Yazechealto,
Yazechebaxo,
Sogocho,
Tabegua,
Juchitepec,
Tabaa,
Yojobii,
Solaga,
Yuechi,
Yaee,
Lachichina,
Yagayo,
Latani,
Maninaltepec,
Jalahuy,
Suchiapa,
Chuapa,
Lalá,
Yahuibé,
Zapiloza,
Yaveo,
Jaltepec,
Ayutla,
Tuxtepec,
Templantale,
Tamazulapa,
Ilahuitoltepec,
Tocontepec,
Moctum,
Amatepec,
Tepitongo,
Yaviche,
Tanche,
Juquila,
Yatao,
Cacalotepec,
Lopa,
Hoya,
Yattoni,
Talea,
Yagabila,
Tapanzaqueco,
Yaneri,
Sogochi,
Teotalco,
Xosaa,
Tiltepec,
Chixila,
Xagalasi,
Yobego,
Yaxoni,
Reagui,
Comatlan,
Yetzelalá,
Puxmecatán,
Otzolote,
Chisme,
Candado,
Cozocosonque,
Chichicatepec,
Mexistlán,
Yacochi,
Guite,
Tonagui,
Tiltepec.

[VILLA BOA, the principal town of the province and *captainship* of Goaz in Brazil. It is in *s.* lat. 16° 22′, and about 192 miles *w. n w.* of Paracuta.]

VILLACURI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Ica in Perú.

[VILLA DEL FUERTE, or Montesclaros, a town of the intendancy of Sonora, to the *n.* of Cinaloa. Its present population is 7,900 souls.]

[VILLA DE LEON, a considerable town of the intendancy of Guanaxuato; in a plain eminently fertile in grain. From this town to San Juan del Rio are to be seen the finest fields of wheat, barley, and maize.]

[VILLA DE PRINCIPE, a town of the province and government of Rio de Janeyro in Brasil; on the confines of the diamond district, visited by Mawe in 1809. In this place, which contains about 5,000 inhabitants, is a mint-master, to whom all the gold found in the neighbourhood is brought for permutation. This town is situate in a fine open country. The few inhabitants that were seen by Mawe are described as looking very wretched.]

[VILLA DE LA PURIFICACION, a town of the intendancy of Guadalaxara, to the *n. w.* of the port of Guatlan, formerly called Santiago de Buena Esperanza, celebrated from the voyage of discovery, made in 1632, by Diego Hurtado de Mendoza.]

VILLA-FRANCA, a town of the English, in the island of Jamaica; situate on the *s.* coast, between the Port Morante and the Point Yallah.

VILLAGE, a settlement of the island of Guadalupe; situate on the *w.* coast, between the river Curé and the Bay of La Barque.

Village, another settlement, in Nova Scotia, on the shore of the lake Freneuse.

VILLAGRAN, Altos de, some hills of the kingdom of Chile, in the territory and country of the Araucanos Indians; celebrated from the military exploits of the Governor Don Juan de Villagran against those infidels; and it was on one of these that he met his death, thus leaving to them his name. It was in these heights that the Governor and President Don Alonso de Sotomayor succeeded in routing those Indians entirely.

Villagran, a river of the above kingdom, which runs *e.* and enters the sea opposite the island of Santa Maria.

VILLANUEVA, De los Infantos, or De los Confines, a city of the kingdom of Chile; founded by D. Garcia Hurtado de Mendoza, Marquis of Cañete. It is of an agreeable and benign temperature; situate in a valley which is watered by several rivers, and is eight leagues from the *cordillera*, and 16 from the capital, Santiago.

Villanueva, a town in the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the river Apure, and opposite the mouth, where this is entered by the St. Domingo.

Villanueva, another town, with the surname of Principe, in the province and *captainship* of Puerto Seguro, and kingdom of Brazil. It is large, handsome, and rich, as having in its territory some very abundant diamond mines.

Villanueva, another, with the dedicatory title of San Antonio, and the surname Del Rio, in the province and *captainship* of Sergipe, in the same kingdom as the former. It has a convent of Capuchins of La Piedad, and another Del Carmen.

VILLAR, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Tomina in Peru, and of the archbishopric of Charcas. In its church is venerated a miraculous image of Nuestra Señora del Rosario; the hands and face of which were brought from Spain, by the Viceroy Don Francisco de Toledo, and by him presented to this settlement.

VILLA-REAL, a settlement of the province and government of Santa Marta in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the grand river Magdalena, at the elbow formed by the lake of the Rompedero.

VILLARICA, a city of the province and government of Valdivia in the kingdom of Chile; founded by Pedro de Valdivia near the *cordillera*. It is thus of a very cold temperature, [165 miles from Concepcion, 63 from Imperial, and 65 from the sea, and about 55 *w.* of the volcano of the same name, in lat. 39° 10′ *s.* long. 72° 10′ *w.*]

Villarica, another city, with the additional title of Espiritu Santo, in the province and government of Paraguay in Peru. It was, at first, founded in the province of Guaira, 200 leagues *e.* of the city of La Ascuncion; but, having been destroyed in 1630, by the Mamelukes of San Pablo, was rebuilt in the spot where it now stands, on the shore of the river Tebiquarimini. It has, besides the parish church, a convent of religious of San Francisco, and 400 housekeepers.

[Villarica, a town also of the province and government of Paraguay; situate on a plain about 68 miles *s. w.* from Ascuncion, in lat. 25° 48′ 55″ *s.* and long. 56° 31′ 59″ *w.*]

[Villarica, a town and capital of the province of Minas Geraes, and the seat of its government; a place which had for many years been reputed the richest in Brazil, as to it was brought all the gold found in the vast district around.—Mawe, who visited it in 1809, observes, that he naturally expected to meet with nothing but wealth; 'but when we spoke,' says he, 'of the richness of the country, and the quantity of gold with which it was reputed to abound, the inhabitants seemed glad of the opportunity of telling us that they believed it was all sent to England; adding, that their town ought now to be termed Villa Pobre instead of Villa Rica.' It is situate on the side of a large mountain, connected with others forming an immense chain, of which it is one of the highest. Most of the streets range, in steps, as it were, from the base to the summit, and are crossed by others which lead up the acclivity. It is most admirably supplied with water, which is conducted into almost every house in a most convenient and pleasant manner. In the streets are many fountains, which, though not to be compared with those of Italy in architectural taste, are well constructed. One cistern in particular contained water which tasted strongly of sulphate of iron: the natives consider it serviceable in the cure of cutaneous diseases, and frequently bathe in it. The town is divided into two parishes, and contains a population of about 20,000 inhabitants, of whom there are more whites than blacks. The climate is delightful, and perhaps equal to that of Naples. Though the latitude of the place is only 20° *s.* yet owing to its elevated site, the temperature of the air is generally moderate. The thermo-]

[meter never exceeds 82° in the shade, and is rarely below 48°, but its usual range is from 64° to 80° in summer, and from 48° to 70° in winter. The greatest heats prevail in January. Owing to its great elevation, various changes from heat to cold prevail in the same day, and there are frequent showers of rain. Thunder-storms are common, but by no means violent. The sun is sometimes clouded by dews and mist so dense as not to subside until the forenoon is far advanced.

The gardens here are laid out with great taste, and from the peculiarity of their construction present a curious spectacle. As there is scarcely a piece of level ground, even 10 yards square, on the whole side of the mountain, the defect has been remedied by cutting spaces one above another at regular distances, and supporting them by low walls, the top of one being on a level with the base of that next above it. An easy flight of steps leads from one level to the other. These terraces are covered with a profusion of delicate flowers. Here are also excellent vegetables of every kind, such as artichokes, asparagus, spinach, cabbage, kidney-beans, and potatoes.—There are many indigenous fruits, which might be much improved by a better system of horticulture. The peach appears to be the only exotic fruit which has been hitherto introduced; it flourishes amazingly. The branches of the trees are generally so loaded as to require perpendicular support.

The town is of considerable extent, but by no means so well peopled as when the mines were rich. Few of the inhabitants have any employment except the shopkeepers, who are indeed a numerous class. English woollens are by no means dear, superfine cloth being at 30*s.* to 35*s.* per yard, coatings, &c. nearly as cheap as in England; common cotton prints at 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* per yard; hats, handkerchiefs, kerseymeres, and Manchester piece goods in great plenty. There is generally a glut of English merchandise and produce of all sorts, except earthenware, hams, porter, butter, and such articles as are enhanced on account of the risk of carriage. Common Figueras wine is sold at 3*s.* 6*d.* the bottle. The shops that sell the produce of the country are few in number and very indifferent. There are a great many tailors, shoemakers, tinworkers, and venders of hardware, some smiths, and no inconsiderable number of saddlers. It is natural that in a country where every one is a horseman, this trade should take the lead of most others. The saddles that are made here are much superior to those of Rio de Janeyro. The working in gold is prohibited by law, to prevent it from undergoing that operation before it might be permuted.

The market of Villa Rica is but ill supplied, notwithstanding the fertility of the district around it. Pulse and vegetables for the table are scarce, even grass is an article in great demand, for mules, who require at least six-pennyworth each per day, exclusive of corn, and milk is as dear as it is in London. Poultry sells at from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* per couple. Beef of a tolerable kind, but by no means good, may be had at 1½*d.* per pound. Pork is very fine; mutton is utterly unknown. Tallow is exceedingly dear, and candles are at more than double the price at which they sell in England.

It is surprising, as we have just observed, to witness the comparative poverty which prevails among the inhabitants. Of above 2,000 habitations, which the town contained, a considerable proportion are untenanted; and the rents of the rest are continually lowering. Houses are to be purchased at one-half their real value; for instance, a house built a few years ago at £.1,000 cost, would not now sell for more than £.500.

The mountain on which the town stands, is in length from eight to nine miles, in every part narrow and almost insulated, being surrounded by deep ravines. It is for the most part composed of argillaceous schistus in almost every gradation, migrated from the compact blue slate into micaceous schistus. In some parts it lies in regular laminæ, in others it appears in confused masses. The slate is sometimes, but not very generally, used for paving, roofing, and other similar purposes. In some parts are to be seen a few slender, confused, and irregular quartzose veins of little consequence, a large proportion of ferruginous accumulations and conglomerations, together with martial pyrites, and a considerable quantity of rounded quartz of all sizes. That side on which the town is built presents many small hills, which form a number of gulleys in narrow ravines. Numerous streamlets flow down from the springs in the mountain in various channels, and in rainy weather swell into cascades; they form a stream at its base called Rio del Carmen, which in its course from hence is joined by many others, and changes its name first into that of Rio St. José, and then into Rio Doce.

It appears that the first discovery of this once rich mountain was effected by the enterprising spirit of the Paulistas, who, of all the colonists in]

[Brazil, retained the largest share of that ardent and indefatigable zeal for discovery which characterised the Lusitanians of former days. They penetrated from their capital into these regions, braving every hardship, and encountering every difficulty which a savage country, infested by still more savage inhabitants, opposed to them. They cut their way through impervious woods, carrying their provisions with them, and occasionally cultivating small patches of land to afford them food to retreat to, in case of necessity, as well as to keep up a communication with their city, St. Paul's. Every inch of ground was disputed by the barbarous Indians, here called Bootocoodies, who were constantly either attacking them openly or lying in ambush, and but too frequently succeeded in surprising some of them, or their Negroes, whom they immediately sacrificed to their horrible appetite for human flesh. They believed the Negroes to be the great monkeys of the wood. The bones of the unfortunate sufferers were frequently found exposed, shocking testimonies of the barbarity of their murderers, whom the Paulistas, roused to revenge, invariably shot, wherever they met them. These examples of vengeance answered their desired end; the Indians, terrified as well by the noise as by the fatal effect of the fire-arms, fled with precipitation, believing that the white men commanded lightning and thunder.

It does not appear that in exploring this territory they received any assistance whatever from the Aborigines; they followed the course of rivers, occasionally finding gold, of which they skimmed the surface, and continued to proceed until they arrived at the mountain which is our present subject. Its riches arrested their course; they immediately erected temporary houses and began their operations. The principal men of the party that first settled here, were Antonio Dias, Bartholomew Rocinho, Antonio de Ferrera *(filho)*, and Garcia Ruis. It appears that they took the most direct way to the place, for the roads they then opened are the same which are still used. The fame of their success soon reached the city of St. Paul's; fresh adventurers arrived in great numbers, bringing with them all the Negroes they had means to purchase. Other adventurers went from St. Paul's to Rio de Janeiro to procure more Negroes, their own city being drained; and thus the news of the lately discovered gold-mountain being made known in the Brazilian capital, men of all descriptions went in crowds to this land of promise by the way of St. Paul's, which was the only route then known. The first settlers might have prevented the exposure of their good fortune, had they been able to moderate their joy, and consented to act in concert; but as gold was in such great abundance, every individual appropriated a lot of ground, and thus became a capitalist. Each strove which should make the most of his treasure in the shortest time, and thus there was a continual demand for more Negroes, more iron, &c. and, in the general eagerness to obtain them, the secret which all were interested in keeping was disclosed. The Paulistas, independent in spirit, and proud of their wealth, were desirous of giving laws to the new-comers; but the latter determining to oppose this measure, formed themselves into a party under the guidance of Manuel Nuñez Viana, an adventurer of some consequence, who strenuously asserted their claim to equal rights and advantages. Disputes arose on both sides, and were at length aggravated into hostilities, which proved unfavourable to the Paulistas, the greater part of whom fled to a considerable station of their own, and there awaited reinforcements. Viana and his followers, without loss of time, went in pursuit of their foes, whom they found on a plain near the site of St. Joao del Rey. The two parties met on the borders of a river, and a sanguinary battle took place, which ended in the defeat of the Paulistas, who afterwards made the best terms they could. The slain were buried on the margin of the river, which, from that circumstance, took the name of Rio das Mortes.

The Paulistas, bent on revenge, but weakened by defeat, appealed to the sovereign, King Pedro, denouncing Viana and his followers as rebels, who were attempting to take the district to themselves, and set up an independent government. The king's ministers, apprized of the state of affairs, and learning by report the immense riches of the country, immediately sent a chief, with a competent body of troops, to take advantage of the strife between the two parties; which, in a country tenable by a few men on account of its numerous strong-holds, was a most fortunate circumstance. The name of this chief was Albuquerque; a man of enterprise and perseverance, in all respects qualified for the service on which he was sent. His appearance at first occasioned much confusion and discontent among both parties; and though he was not openly opposed, yet he was in continual alarm. The Paulistas now saw that the riches which they in conjunction with their rivals might have retained, were about to be seized by a third party, which]

[would reduce them both to subordination. Disturbances prevailed for some time, but reinforcements continually arriving from government, tranquillity was at length perfectly established; and in the year 1711 a regular town began to be formed; a government-house, a mint, and a depôt for arms were built. A code of laws was enacted for the regulation of the mines; all gold-dust found was ordered to be delivered to officers appointed for that purpose; a fifth in weight was taken for the king, and the remaining four parts were purified, melted into ingots at the expense of government, then assayed, marked according to their value, and delivered to the owners, with a certificate to render them current. For the greater convenience of trade, gold-dust was likewise permitted to circulate for small payments. Notwithstanding these strict regulations, a considerable quantity of the precious metal in its original state found its way to Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, aud other ports, clandestinely, without paying the royal fifth, until government, apprized of this illicit traffic, established registers in various parts for the examination of all passengers, and stationed soldiers to patrole the roads. By these means, gold in immense quantities was seized and confiscated; the persons on whom any was found forfeited all their property, and, unless they had friends of great influence, were sent as convicts to Africa for life. The greatest disgrace was attached to the name of smuggler; and such was the rigour of the law against offenders of this description, that every person quitting the district was obliged to take a certificate stating whither he was going, and what he carried with him. This regulation is still in force, and is rigorously observed.

Villarica soon enjoyed a considerable trade with Rio de Janeiro; the returns were Negroes, iron, woollens, salt, provisions of various kinds, and wine, all which at that time bore amazingly high profits.

About the year 1713, when Dr. Bras de Silvia was appointed governor, the quantity of gold produced was so considerable that the royal fifth amounted to £500,000 sterling annually. The mountain became pierced like a honey-comb, as the miners worked every soft part they could find, and penetrated as far as they could, conveying the *cascalhao* which they dug out to a convenient place for washing. In rainy weather the torrents of water running down the sides of the mountain, carried away much earthy matter containing delicate particles of gold, which settled in the ground near its base. When the waters abated, this rich deposit gave employment to numbers of the poorer sort of people, who took it away and washed it at their convenience.

Antonio Dias, the person already mentioned as one of the leaders of the Paulistas, who discovered the place, having become extremely rich, built a fine church, and dying soon after, bequeathed to it considerable funds. It still bears his name. Five or six others were begun and soon finished, as neither wood nor stone was wanting, and the inhabitants were all ready to contribute a share of their property, and to employ their Negroes in furtherance of these pious works; but the Portuguese government soon enacted a law prohibiting friars from entering the territory of the mines.

The town now underwent many improvements; its streets were more regularly built, and some parts of the side of the mountain were levelled to afford more convenient room for the construction of houses, and the laying out of gardens. Reservoirs were formed, from which water was distributed by means of conduits to all parts, and public fountains were erected in the most convenient and central situations. The mint and smelting-houses were enlarged, and rendered more commodious for the transaction of business. About this period the inhabitants amounted to 12,000, or upwards; those who possessed mines were either the first settlers or their descendants, and as the best part of the district was occupied, the new adventurers who continued to arrive from time to time were obliged to enter into the service of the existing owners until they had learned their methods of working, after which they generally went in search of fresh mines, proceeding along the water-courses and ravines, where they sometimes discovered new sources of wealth. Between the years 1730 and 1750 the mines were in the height of their prosperity; the king's fifth during some years of that period is said to have amounted to at least a million sterling annually.

The mines which produced this immense wealth at length became gradually less abundant; and, as the precious metal disappeared, numbers of the miners retired, some to the mother-country, loaded with riches, which tempted fresh adventurers, and many to Rio de Janeiro and other sea-ports, where they employed their large capitals in commerce.

Villarica at the present day scarcely retains a shadow of its former splendor. Its inhabitants, with the exception of the shopkeepers, are void of employment; they totally neglect the fine coun-]

[try around them, which, by proper cultivation, would amply compensate for the loss of the wealth which their ancestors drew from its bosom. Their education, their habits, their hereditary prejudices, alike unfit them for active life; perpetually indulging in visionary prospects of sudden wealth, they fancy themselves exempted from that universal law of nature which ordains that man shall live by the sweat of his brow.—In contemplating the fortunes accumulated by their predecessors, they overlook the industry and perseverance which obtained them, and entirely lose sight of the change of circumstances which renders those qualities now doubly necessary. Reared in idleness and ignorance, they feel nothing for the benefits of industry. Their Negroes constitute their principal property, and them they manage so ill, that the profits of their labour hardly defray the expenses of their maintenance. This deplorable degeneracy is almost the universal characteristic of the descendants of the original settlers; every trade is occupied either by Mulattoes or Negroes, both of which classes seem superior in intellect to their masters, because they make a better use of it.

We shall conclude our notice of this capital, with an interesting account of the method employed in extracting the ore in the gold-washings, and a description of the mint, which, with the chief part of the preceding information, is extracted from the work of Mr. Mawe.

At the washings a great extent of ground is already worked, and quartzose stones are lying about in immense heaps. On the margin of the river is a bank, through which they are obliged to cut to the depth of at least 10 feet, to get at the *cascalhao* incumbent on the rock. The substance they have to cut through is clay, so strong that though falls of water are let upon it, and Negroes are constantly working it with hoes of various kinds, it is with difficulty to be removed. This is not the only impediment, for, by the constant precipitation of mud, the *cascalao* is five feet below the bed of the river; hence, when they have sunk their pits, they have to use means for drawing the water from them. The hydraulic machines employed for this purpose are constructed as follows: a trough or spout, made of four stout planks, forming a cavity, say six inches square, is placed in an inclined position, with its lower end in the pit, where a roller is properly secured to a pile driven into the ground: an iron chain, with peculiar links, on every one of which is fixed a piece of wood, nearly answering the interior dimensions of the spout, is passed through it, then under the roller, and over the outside, up to the axis of a water-wheel, which being put in motion, causes the discharge of a column of water equal to the cavity. These machines are calculated to raise a great deal of water, but they are liable to be thrown out of repair. In many cases hand-pumps would serve the purpose better, being made at little trouble or expense, easily repaired, and always ready at an hour's notice. They are here utterly unknown.

In the operation of getting gold, the heavy work is assigned to the male Negroes, and the lighter labour to the females. The *cascalhao*, dug from these pits by the former, is carried away by the latter in *gamellas*, or bowls, to be washed. In performing this process, the men do not, in the first instance, attempt to separate the gold from the black oxide of iron, but empty their *gamellas* into a larger vessel, by rinsing them in the water which it contains. The substance deposited in this vessel is delivered out, in small portions of about a pound each, to the most skilful washers, as the operation of washing, or, as it is termed, purifying it, requires great niceness and dexterity. Some of the grains of gold are so fine as to float on the surface, and of course are liable to be washed away in these repeated changes of water; to prevent which the Negroes bruise a few handfuls of herbs on a stone, and mix the juice in small proportions with the water in their *gamellas*. Whether this liquid does in reality tend to precipitate the gold, is not certain, but the Negroes certainly use it with the greatest confidence.

There is another mode of separating the gold from the *cascalhao*, called canoe-washing, which is extremely interesting. The canoes are made in the following manner: two 10 or 12 inch planks, about 12 or 15 feet in length, are laid on the ground, forming an inclined plane, sloping about one inch in 12; two other planks of similar dimensions are fixed in the same direction at the lower end, forming a second inclined plane, with a fall of six inches from the former. On their sides are boards placed edge-wise, and staked down to the ground so as to form long shallow troughs, the bottoms of which are covered with hides tanned with the hair on, having the hairy side outwards, or, in defect of these, with rough baize. Down these troughs is conveyed the water containing the oxide of iron and the lighter particles of gold; the latter substance precipitating in its course is entangled by the hair. Every half hour the hides are taken]

[up, and carried to a tank near at hand, formed of four walls, say five feet long, four broad, and four deep, and containing about two feet depth of water. The hides are stretched over this tank and well beaten, then dipped and beaten repeatedly, until all the gold is disentangled, after which they are carried back and replaced in the troughs. The tanks are locked up at nights, and well secured. The sediment taken from them being light is easily washed away by the hand in the manner before described, leaving only the black oxide of iron, called *esmeril*, and the gold, which is so fine that mercury is used to separate it. The process is performed as follows: about two pounds weight of oxide of iron, very rich in fine grains of gold, is put in a clean bowl; a quantity of mercury, about two ounces, is added to it; the mass of oxide, which is very damp, is worked by the hand for about 20 minutes, when the mercury appears to separate the *esmeril*, and to take up all the gold, assuming a soft doughy mass, that retains any form into which it is squeezed. The grains of gold, however, remain not amalgamated with, but merely enveloped in, the mercury. The mass is then put into a folded handkerchief, and an ounce or more of mercury is wrung or squeezed from it. The rest is put into a small brass dish, covered with a few green leaves, and then placed over a charcoal fire, where it is stirred with an iron rod to prevent the gold from adhering to the sides of the dish. The leaves are occasionally changed as they become parched by the heat. When taken off, they exhibit in some parts small globules of mercury, and in others white oxide; on washing them with water, nearly half an ounce of the former substance is obtained from them. The gold after this operation always becomes changed in colour from an agreeable soft yellow to a dirty brown, and presents a very different appearance from that which is not subjected to mercury.

In the smelting-house of the mint, are eight or 10 small blast furnaces, in form much resembling blacksmiths' hearths. The fuel used is charcoal. When a quantity of gold dust is brought, (no matter whether large or small) say, for instance, six ounces, it is first permuted, and a fifth taken for the prince; the rest is put into a Hessian crucible about three inches in diameter, which is immediately placed in the furnace. A quantity of corrosive sublimate is then put to it, which, on being heated, exhales very strong fumes; the scoriæ, if any be formed, are taken off with a pair of tongs, and more sublimate is added if required. Ebullition sometimes occurs, in which case the crucible is covered with a bit of common tile. As soon as the mercury is evaporated, the gold is poured into an 'ingot mould, previously rubbed with animal fat; it is afterwards turned out into a tub of water. The ingot generally, in some part or other, has mercury attached to it, which it seizes immediately, and the part of the gold thus affected assumes the appearance of lead. To remove this, they hold it in a strong fire with a pair of tongs until the mercury is evaporated. It is afterwards sent to the assay-master, who first compares it on the touchstone with gold bars of different alloys, ascertained and marked, and then assays it. The two methods being found to agree, the assay master stamps upon the ingot its degree of fineness, called *toque*, also its weight, its number, the name of the place, and the year. It is then registered in a book kept for that purpose, and a copy of the entry is made out on a slip of paper, in which the ingot is wrapped, and delivered to the owner for circulation. The operation of melting a given quantity seldom occupies more than 10 minutes or a quarter of an hour; that of cupelling, about double the time: but gold dust may sometimes be delivered, and received in a circulating form in less than an hour; so that little delay takes place, and as there are six furnaces, the bringers of gold have seldom to wait for their turn. The pale colour and low quality of various bars of gold are always imputed to the silver, platina, or other metal contained in them: they vary from 16 to 23½ carats, which is within half a carat of what is denominated pure gold. Twenty-two is the standard, and gold exceeding that receives a premium according to its fineness. Villarica is in lat. 20° 26′ *s.* and long. 45° 50′ *w.*]

Villarica, a volcano of the kingdom of Chile, in the mountains of the *cordillera*, of the territory of Arauco. In its vicinity is another volcano, called El Chinal. From the skirt of the former issues forth two streams as wide as a man's body, which unite, and form a large channel, emptying itself into a lake of this name. [This volcano may be seen at the distance of 150 miles; and although it appears to be isolated, it is said to be connected by its base with the Andes. It is 14 miles in circumference at its base, which is principally covered with pleasant forests. A great number of rivers, independently of the one mentioned by Alçedo, have their sources from it, and its perpetual verdure furnishes a proof that its irruptions have never been very violent.]

VILLARICA. Some *sierras* or *cordillera* of mountains of Nueva España, which run between the mouth of the river Tampico and the Point Delgada.

VILLAS QUATRO, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, in the province and bishopric of Oaxaca, belonging to the house of the Marquis del Valle, through a grant made by Hernan Cortez, as a reward for services. It is bounded by the jurisdiction of the city of Oaxaca; the boundary being marked by a tree at the back of the convent of the religious women of Santa Monica, in the capital of the jurisdiction. The territory is very fertile in cochineal, seeds, and fruits, and with these it carries on a trade with the neighbouring jurisdictions. In its district are 12 estates and small farms, in which cattle are bred; also six mills for grinding corn, and by which supplies of flour are made to a great part of the province. The capital is the town which they call Del Marquesado; and the settlements, of which its jurisdiction is composed, are the following:

San Martin Mexicapa,
San Juan Chapultepec,
Santo Tomas Xuchimilco,
San Jacinto,
San Pedro Apostol,
San Antonio de la Cal,
San Sebastian de Etla,
Guadalupe,
Nareo,
La Soledad,
Santo Domingo,
Cuilapa,
Santa Cruz Xocoxotlan,
San Lucas Ilanechico,
S. Raymundo Xalpa,
San Agustin de la Cal,
San Andres Guayapa,
Santa Lucia,
S. Sebastian Tuctla,
Sta. Domingo Tomaltepec,
Sta. Ana Zagache,
San Juan de Chilateca,
San Pedro Guegorese,
Santa Catalina de las Minas,
Chichicapa,
Santa Marta,
San Martin Yachila,
San Martin de las Peras,
San Pablo de las Peras,
Santa Maria Atzompa,
San Pablo de Etla,
Ilapacoya,
S. Agustin de Etla,
San Gabriel,
S. Miguel de Etla,
Asuncion,
Santa Marta II.
San Juan Guelache,
Santa Maria Nativitas,
Los Santos Reyes.

VILLASIMA, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán in Perú, of the jurisdiction and district of the city of San Fernando de Catamarca.

VILLA-VIEJA, a town of the province and *captainship* of Espirtu Santo, in Brasil.

VILLA-VIEJA, a settlement of the province and government of Neiva in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; annexed to the curacy of its capital. It is of a hot temperature, abounding in gold mines and the vegetable productions of its climate, as also in very large breeds of neat cattle.

VILLAVISENCIO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chile; situate on the bank of the river Longomilla, in the *s.* part. It has in its vicinity the estate of Tabontinaja.

VILLELAS, SAN JOSEPH DE, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán, in Perú; situate on the shore of the river Salado, in the jurisdiction of the city of Santiago del Estero, and now in the territory of the Chacos. It is a *reduccion* of the religious missionaries of St. Francis, and composed of Petacas, Hipas, Humahuampas, and Villelas Indians.

[VILLEMONT'S PRAIRIE, a tract of meadow land, on the right of the mouth of the Washita River, in N. America. See vol. iii. p. 252 of this work.]

VILLETA, a settlement of the government of Mariquita, and jurisdiction of the town of Honda, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Sasaima. It is of a very hot temperature, produces much maize, sugar canes, *yucas*, and plantains, and contains more than 100 housekeepers, but very few Indians, and has the disadvantage of abounding in insects.

VILLETA, a town of the province and government of Paraguay; situate on the shore of the river of its name, and to the *s.* of the city of La Asuncion, with a fort for its defence.

[VILLETA, another parish of the province and government of Paraguay, in lat. 25° 30′ 56″ *s.* long. 57° 36′ 25″ *w.*]

VILLIERS, a settlement of Canada, on the shore of the river St. Lawrence, nearly opposite Quebec.

VILLITA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tlatenango and *alcaldía mayor* of Colotlan, in Nueva España; six leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

VILLIVA, or QUEDAL, PUNTA DE, a cape or extremity in the coast of the S. Sea, in the province and government of Valdivia and kingdom of Chile, being 80 miles *s.* of Valdivia, in lat. 41° 6′ *s.*

VINA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huamanga, in Perú, 23 leagues distant from Guancabélica; whither the natives

bring from the adjoining estates certain fruits; so that they are for the most part muleteers, keeping for this traffic upwards of 200 mules.

[VINALHAVEN, a township on the coast of the district of Maine, in Hancock County, containing, in 1790, 578 inhabitants. It is *s. e.* of Deer Island.]

VINARA, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán, in the jurisdiction of the city of Santiago del Estero; from whence it is 20 leagues distant.

VINCACHOS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Porco, in Peru.

VINCELOT, a settlement of the French in Canada; on the shore of the river St. Lawrence, and at the mouth of the river of Trois Saumons.

VINCENT, St. an island of the N. Sea, one of the smaller Antilles; situate *e.* of Barbadoes, *n.* of St. Lucia, and *s.* of Becoya, [being about 24 miles long from the *e.* side of Tyrrel's Bay, the extreme *s.* point of the island to Tarraty Point, its *n* extremity; and about 18 broad from the mouth of Calonery River, *e.* to Cumberland Bay, at the mouth of Washilabo River on the *w.*] It is of nearly a round figure, mountainous, and full of lofty and thick woods, although it is not without some plains irrigated by several streams. On the coast are some convenient bays, with good soundings. The island is inhabited by Caribes, although the numbers of these are very inferior to those of the Negro slaves, who have settled here after having fled from their masters in the other islands, and who are always considered, with a very jealous eye, by the Indians. The French endeavoured to establish themselves here; and, in fact, have here a small colony, which came from Barbadoes, who cultivate tobacco of excellent quality, known in Europe by the name of St. Vincent or Dunkirk. The English, under the Duke of Montague and Captain Irwing, attempted to found here another colony, but without effect, although that commander, with a profound zeal and patriotic spirit, expended £.40,000 in the enterprise.

[The tremendous convulsion of nature, with which St. Vincent was visited by the eruption of the Souffrier mountain, so late as the 1st of May, 1812, is what first strikes us in the consideration of this island. It was of a magnitude unprecedented even in that quarter of the globe. Such then of our readers as are delighted with the awful and terrific we refer to a long and faithful description of all the phenomena that took place on this distressing occasion under the article Souffrier of this work. This done, we proceed to shew what has been the progressive advancement of St. Vincent's up to the awful period of its visitation. Whether it will ever completely recover from the ruin it experienced is somewhat doubtful; for, if it be true, as the St. Vincent's Journal asserted, that "the quantity of combustible matter discharged was equal to the bulk of the whole island," the soil must have experienced a complete superstratum, and the ancient productions have been all buried in one heterogeneous mass.

Previously to the year 1763, Dominica, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Tobago, were denominated neutral islands; or, they were rather islands to which both Britain and France laid a claim; but by the treaty of peace in that year, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, were ceded in full right to Britain, and St. Lucia to France.

At this time there were some trifling settlements in Dominica and St. Vincent, formed by a few French, who had landed and resided without molestation. There were also in both a few families of savages, the aborigines of the islands, of a yellow colour, with long lank hair, and distinguished by the name of Yellow Caribes; but in St. Vincent there were also a numerous race of people, who called themselves Black Caribes, who ranged over, and had a kind of possession of above half the island. These were the progeny of a cargo of slaves from Africa stranded on the windward part of the island, about the year 1690.

About the year 1764 or 5, commissioners were appointed by his Majesty, to sell the lands in Dominica and St. Vincent, thus ceded by the treaty of peace of 1763; and, in St. Vincent, the boundary of that part of the island, of which it was agreed the Black Caribes should be allowed to retain possession was ascertained, and the other lands disposed of by the commissioners.

In about the year 1771, owing to some misconduct on the part of these Black Caribes, they were driven by his Majesty's troops a considerable way within the limits before prescribed to them, leaving them, however, in possession of lands infinitely more than sufficient for their maintenance, or they were likely for some hundred years to be able to cultivate. On this occasion, in the year 1773, a treaty was entered into with them, by which they relinquished all claim to lands without a certain boundary, acknowledged themselves to hold those lands, they were permitted to retain, of his Majesty, and to be amenable to the English government for any]

[offences which affected British subjects, but retaining the right to punish offences amongst themselves.

The lands thus obtained have since been granted by the crown to the quantity of 40,000 acres, the first 20,538 that were sold having brought the sum of £162,854. 11*s*. 7*d*. sterling. A part of the rest were given to Lieut. General Monckton as a remuneration for services; and the residue has been granted to different settlers by the successive governors of the island.

In the year 1795, the Black Caribes, joined by the French inhabitants, broke out in open rebellion, avowing an intention of murdering every white British subject; and, in many instances, carrying such intention into effect in the most barbarous manner. By his Majesty's troops, aided by the British inhabitants of the island, and their slaves, this rebellion was crushed in the end of the year 1796; and the Black Caribes surrendered and were conveyed to the island of Ratan, where they were landed with provisions, &c. The lands they occupied, and which are now considered as crown lands in that island, are estimated to contain about 27,000 or 28,000 acres, no survey having ever been made: of these, previously to the calamity of the earthquake, 14,000 to 16,000 acres were supposed to be adapted to the culture of the sugar-cane; about 6,000 or 7,000 acres to be suitable for pasture and provision ground, and the residue of little value, being the summits and sides of very high and steep mountains, making the total amount of acres in this island about 84,000. It should be observed, however, that in the Report of Privy Council on the Slave Trade, in 1788, the British property vested here was estimated at only 25,000 taxed acres of patented estates; the number of Negroes being taken at 15,000, at £50 each Negro. A large portion of the lands were in high woods and brush-wood: parts of them indeed had been cleared in patches or very small parcels by the Caribes for raising provisions and tobacco, previous to their expulsion in the end of the year 1796, and beginning of the year 1797.

The whole of the lands are well watered by about 20 rivers, sufficiently large, and well suited for mills; and the soil and surface is well calculated for the cultivation of the sugar-cane. The value of the lands is, however, much diminished by their situation being in the windward coast of the island, where there is, at all times, great difficulty in shipping any produce, or landing any supplies: which circumstance, though it operates as a very great injury to the planter in time of peace, yet, during a war, affords security against plunder by privateers, an evil often experienced by settlers in the leeward part of the island; and indeed to such species of warfare all the islands, in a great degree, are equally liable.

The value of these lands are estimated very differently. Some persons have rated the same land as high as £40 sterling per acre; and others, who ought to be equally informed, at half the sum. Probably from £25 to £30 sterling per acre is near the price they ought to bring if sold, payable by instalments of 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 years; but, if sold for ready money, much less. The provision and pasturage land might bring from £5 to £10 sterling per acre. From the above data, the total value of the land of this island might be estimated, in round numbers, at about £420,000 sterling.

As St. Vincent's was only partially cultivated on a few leeward bays, by French intruders, previous to 1763, when it ceased to be a neutral island, and was annexed to the British crown, the produce was not large. The French settlers, adverted to, grew, in 1764,

Tobacco, - - -	12,000 *andoulles*.
Cocoa, - - - -	7,900 cwt.
Coffee, - - - -	14,700 cwt.

At the restoration of the island to the dominion of Great Britain by the general pacification of 1783, it contained 61 sugar estates, 500 acres in coffee, 200 acres in *cacao*, 400 in cotton, 50 in indigo, and 500 in tobacco, besides land appropriated to the raising provisions, such as plantains, yams, maize, &c. All the rest of the country, excepting the few spots that had been cleared from time to time by the Caribes, retained its native woods. Since that period much industry and exertion had been employed in taking advantage of its physical powers. The progress of its cultivation will appear by a return to House of Commons, 1806, shewing the number of hogsheads of sugar of 13 cwt. exported in the following years:

	Hogsheads.
In 1789, - -	6,400
1799, - -	12,120
1805, - -	17,200

The total exports in 1788, in 122 vessels, amounted in value, according to the current prices in London, to £186,450 14*s*. 8*d*. including exports to the American States, to the value of £9,019 1*s*. 8*d*. sterling. The cargoes consisted of 65,128 cwt. 1 qr. 27lb. sugar; 88,266]

[gallons rum; 9,656 gallons molasses; 634 cwt. 1 qr. 5lb. coffee; 761,880 lbs. cotton; 143 cwt. 24 lb. cocoa; besides hides, dying woods, &c.

In the year 1800, the quantity of sugar made amounted to 16,518 hogsheads, and in the following year the crops were increased to 17,908.

In 1810, 18,288 hogsheads were produced, and at present the average quantity may possibly extend to 20,000 hogsheads.

The quantities of the principal articles imported into Great Britain, were in

	Coffee.		Sugar.		Rum.	Cotton Wool.
	British Plant.	Foreign Plant.	British Plant.	Foreign Plant.		
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Gallons.	lbs.
1809,	248	—	202,953	4	243,461	230,822
1810,	327	—	197,304	—	200,795	171,032

The official value of the Imports and Exports between Great Britain and St. Vincent's, were in

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1809, - -	£307,829 - -	£82,408
1810, - -	295,509 - -	96,872

St. Vincent's, in 1800, was divided into four parishes, St. David, St. Patrick, St. Andrew, and St. George. Its towns are Kingston, the capital, and Richmond; the others are villages or hamlets, at the several bays and landing-places. The islands dependent on the St. Vincent's government, are Bequia, containing 3,700 acres; Union, 2,150 acres; Canouane, 1,777 acres; and Mustique, about 1,200 acres. Of the 11,853 Negroes, in 1787, as in the table beneath, about 1,400 were employed in the cultivation of these islands. There are likewise the little islots of Petit Martinique, Petit St. Vincent, and Balleseau, each of which produces a little cotton.—The other productions, are cinnamon, mango, sasamum, *vaynilla*, China tallow tree, camphor, gum, and storax.

By report of the Privy Council in 1788, and by subsequent returns to House of Commons, the population of St. Vincent's amounted to

	Whites.	People of Colour.	Slaves.	Total.
1787	1450	300	11,853	13,603
1805	1600	450	16,500	18,550

Of late years the white population has decreased in the same proportion as in the other islands.

The import of slaves into St. Vincent's, by report of Privy Council, 1788, at a medium of four years, and by a return to House of Commons in 1805, at a medium of two years, to 1803, was

Average of	Imports.	Re-exports.	Retained.
4 years to 1787	1825	300	1525
2 years to 1803	1540	—	1540

For a concise and comparative view of the population, property, annual productions, and commerce of this valuable island, the reader is referred to the article WEST INDIES.

St. Vincent lies 200 miles *n.e.* of Margaret, and 78 *w.* of Barbadoes, its middle being in lat. 13° 17′ *n.* long 61° 15′ *w.*]

[VINCENT, a township of Pennsylvania; situate in Chester County.]

[VINCENT, De las Pazes, St., or Onda, a town of Popayan and Tierra Firme, in S. America, about 25 miles *e.* of San Sebastian, with a port where canoes from Cartagena and St. Martha unload their merchandise.]

[VINCENT, Port St. (the same as that called by Alcedo, Vicente), on the coast of Chile, in the S. Pacific Ocean, is six miles *n.n.e.* of the mouth of the river Biobio, having a safe harbour, and secure against all winds but the *w.* which blows right in. Talcaguama Port is six miles to the *n.* of it.]

[VINCENT, a *captainship* of Brazil. See VICENTE.]

[VINCENTO, a channel which goes in on the *w.* side of the channel of Amiaz Island, in the Bay of Todos Santos, on the coast of Brazil.]

[VINCENTS, FORT, in the N. W. Territory, stands on the *e.* side of Wabash River, 150 miles by the meanderings of the river from its mouth. It was erected in the year 1787, in order to repel the incursions of the Wabash Indians, and to secure the *w.* lands from intruding settlers. It has four small brass cannon, and is garrisoned]

by a major and two companies. The town of Vincents contained, in 1792, about 1,500 souls, principally of French extraction. It is about 140 miles *s. w.* of Fort Recovery. Lat. 38° 48′ *n.* Long. 87° 25′ *w.* They raise Indian corn, and wheat; and tobacco of an extraordinary good quality, superior, it is said, to that produced in Virginia. They have a fine breed of horses, brought originally by the Indians from the Spanish settlements, on the *w.* side of the Mississippi. Here are large herds of swine and black cattle, and the settlers deal with the Indians for furs and deer-skins. Hemp of a good quality grows spontaneously in the low lands of the Wabash; as do grapes, of which the inhabitants make a sufficient quantity, for their own consumption, of well-tasted red wine. Hops, large and good, are found in many places, and the lands are particularly adapted to the culture of rice. All European fruits thrive well, both here and in the country bordering on the river Ohio.]

VINCHAINA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huanta in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Quinoa.

VINCHAINA, another settlement, in the same province and kingdom as the former. It has the surname of La Sal, to distinguish it, and is annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Ticllas.

[VINER'S ISLAND, in Hudson's Bay, lies *n. e.* of the mouth of Albany River.]

[VINEYARD, NEW, a plantation in Lincoln County, district of Maine, on the two north-easternmost branches of Sandy River, about 59 miles *n.* by *w.* of Brunswick, and 37 *n. w.* of Hallowell.]

VINEYARD Sound, on the *s. e.* coast of Massachusetts, is the strait or passage between the Elizabeth Islands and Martha's Vineyard. The *s. w.* channel of which is from four to seven miles broad, has Gay Head on the *s. e.* and the Sow and Pigs on the *n. w.*]

VINEYARD, Marthas, an island of the N. Sea; situate near the coast of New England, of the United States of America, opposite the Bay of Buzard. [See MARTHA'S VINEYARD.]

VINNOQUE, a river of the kingdom of Peru, which rises in the province and *corregimiento* of Castro Virreyna, to the *e.* of the capital, runs to this rhumb, and then turning its course to the province of Vilcas Huaman to the *n.* enters the river Pangora.

VINTER, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes; situate on the *e.* coast.

[VIPER KEY, one of the Tortugas, on the coast of Florida; five miles *n. e.* of Duck Key, and 3½ *e.* of Old Matacombe.]

VIRACACHA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Tunja, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a very cold temperature, produces much wheat, maize, *papas*, vetches, and apples, and Alexandrian roses in great abundance. —The natives fabricate rugs, blankets, baizes, and other articles of wool. It contains very few white inhabitants, and about 80 Indians, is three hours journey *s. e.* of Tunja, and near the settlement of Ramiquiri.

VIRACO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Condesuyos de Arequipa in Peru.

VIRCAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canta in Peru, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pari.

[VIRGIL, a military township of Onondago County, New York, having Dryden on the *w.* Cincinnatus *e.* Homer *n.* and on the *s.* 230,000 acres of land on Susquehannah River, ceded to the State of Massachusetts. It is under the jurisdiction of Homer, which was incorporated in 1794.]

VIRGIN GORDA, an island in the N. Sea, one of the Lesser Antilles, situate to the *e.* of the island of Puerto Rico, and four leagues from Tortola. It is of a very irregular figure, and its greatest length from *n. e.* to *s. w.* is eight miles. It has very few inhabitants, and in the centre of it is a mountain in which is said to be found a silver-mine. It is situate in lat. 18° 30′ *n.* long. 64° 25′ *w.* and is one of those called the VIRGIN ISLANDS.—See this article.

[VIRGIN MARY, CAPE, the *n. e.* point of the entrance of the Straits of Magellan, in the S. Atlantic Ocean, is a steep white cliff. Lat. 52° 21′ *s.* long. 68° 17′ *w.* The variation of the compass, in 1780, was 24′ 30″ *e.*]

[VIRGIN ROCKS, off the *s. e.* part of the coast of Newfoundland Island, 20 leagues *s. e.* of Cape Race. Lat. 46° *n.* According to others, lat. 46° 30′ *n.* and these last say 17 or 18 leagues *s. e.* by *e.* of Cape Ballard.]

VIRGINES, or VIRGIN ISLES, a group of 12 or more islands of the N. Sea, and of the Lesser Antilles, for the most part uncultivated, barren, and desert. They lie to the *e.* of Puerto Rico, and to the *w.* of Anguila. Although the pass through the middle of them is looked upon as difficult and hazardous, it was effected by Francis Drake, when he went to attack the island of St. Domingo, in 1580. One of these islands is

called De Páxaros, or Birds' Island, since there are such numbers of them, and so tame, that a ship load might be caught without difficulty.

These islands belong to different powers, and occupy a space of 24 leagues from *e.* to *w.* and of 16 leagues in width. This archipelago is composed of a great number of isles, the coasts of which are very dangerous for navigators, and celebrated for the shipwreck of many vessels, particularly of some valuable Spanish galleons; but very luckily for trade and navigation nature has situate in the midst of them a bay of three or four leagues wide, and of six or seven long, the most beautiful that can possibly be imagined, called the Bay of Francis Drake, in which vessels may lie at anchor close to the shore in safety, and well sheltered from all the winds.

At present the possession of these islands is divided between the English and the Danes, and the Spaniards pretend to those which are nighest to Puerto Rico. Those belonging to the English are, the Virgin Gorda, on which depend Anegada, Nicker, Prickly Pear, Mosquito Island, Cumanoes, Dog Island, the Fallen City, the Round Rock, Ginger, Coopers, Salt Island, Peter's, and Dead Chest; besides which, Tortola, on which depend Jost Van Dykes, Little Van Dykes, Guana, Beef, and Thatch Islands, all of which have, in the course of a few years, been put under a regular form of government.

The islands belonging to the Danes are, St. Thomas, on which those of Brass, Little Saba, Buck, Great and Little St. James, and Bird Island, are dependent; with St. John's, on which depend those of Lavango, Cam, Witch, and Santa Cruz.

The Spaniards claim Serpents' Island, (which the English call Green Island), the Tropic Keys, Great and Little Passage Island, and particularly Crab Island.

[The Virgin Islands were so named by Columbus himself, who discovered them in 1493, and gave them this appellation, in allusion to the well-known legend in the Romish ritual of the 11,000 virgins.

The Spaniards of those days, however, thought them unworthy of further notice. A century afterwards, 1596, they were visited by the Earl of Cumberland, in his way to the attack of Puerto Rico; and the historian of that voyage, whose narrative is preserved in Hakluyt's collection, calls them "a knot of little islands wholly uninhabited, sandy, barren, and craggy." Although, as has been already stated, the principal islands do not exceed 10 or 12, the whole group may comprehend about 40 islands, islots, and keys, and they are divided as just mentioned.

The first possessors of such of these islands as now belong to the British government, were a party of Dutch Bucaniers who fixed themselves at Tortola about the year 1648, and built a fort there for their protection. In 1666, they were driven out by a stronger party of the same adventurers, who, calling themselves English, pretended to take possession for the crown of England, and the English monarch, if he did not commission the enterprise, made no scruple to claim the benefit of it; for Tortola and its dependencies were soon afterwards annexed to the Leeward Island government, in a commission granted by King Charles II. to Sir William Stapleton.

The Dutch had made but little progress in cultivating the country when they were expelled from Tortola; and the chief merit of its subsequent improvements was reserved for some English settlers from the little island of Anguilla, who, about a century past, embarked with their families and settled in the Virgin Islands. Their wants were few, and their government simple and unexpensive. The deputy-governor, with a council nominated from among themselves, exercised both the legislative and judicial authority, determining, in a summary manner, without a jury, all questions between subject and subject; and as to taxes, there seem to have been none laid: when money was absolutely necessary for public use, it was raised, we conjecture, by voluntary contribution.

Under such a system, it was impossible that the colony could attain to much importance. It wanted the advantage of English capitals; but credit is sparingly given where payment cannot easily be enforced. The inhabitants therefore, whose numbers in 1756, amounted to 1,263 whites, and 6,121 blacks, reasonably hoped to be put on the same footing with the sister islands, by the establishment of a perfect civil government, and constitutional courts of justice among them; but in this expectation they were not gratified until the year 1773. In that year, they presented an humble petition to the captain-general of the Leeward Island government, requesting his excellency to unite with them in an application to his Majesty, for permission to elect an assembly of representatives out of the freeholders and planters, in order that such assembly, with the governor and council, might frame]

[proper laws for their peace, welfare, and good government; pledging themselves, in that case, to grant to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, an impost of 4½ per cent. in specie, upon all goods and commodities the growth of these islands, similar to that which was paid in the other Leeward Islands.

Their application, thus sweetened, proved successful. It was signified to them that his Majesty, fully considering the persons, circumstances, and condition of his said Virgin Islands, and the necessity there was, from the then state of their culture and inhabitancy, that some adequate and perfect form of civil government should be established therein; "and finally trusting that his faithful subjects in his said Virgin Islands, who should compose the new assembly, would, as the first act of legislation, cheerfully make good the engagement of granting to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, the impost of 4½ per cent. on all the produce of the Virgin Islands, to be raised and paid in the same manner as the 4½ per cent. is made payable in the other Leeward Islands," did cause his royal pleasure to be signified to the governor in chief, that he should issue writs in his Majesty's name, for convening an assembly or house of representatives, who, together with a council, to be composed of 12 persons, to be appointed by the governor for that purpose, might frame and pass such laws as should be necessary for the welfare and good government of the said islands.

Accordingly, on November 30, 1773, the governor in chief of the Leeward Islands, in obedience to his Majesty's orders, issued a proclamation for convening an assembly or house of representative of the Virgin Islands, who met on the first of February following, and very honourably complied with their engagement to the crown; the very first act passed by them being the grant before mentioned of 4½ per cent. on the produce of the colony for ever. They afterwards passed a grant of £.400 currency per ann. as their proportion towards the salary of the governor-general.

Such was the price at which the Virgin Islands purchased the establishment of a constitutional legislature, and they were thus included under the Leeward Charaibean island government.

The chief, and almost the only staple productions of these islands are sugar and cotton. Of the quantity of land appropriated to the cultivation of either, we have no account, nor can we venture even to guess, at the quantity of unimproved land which may yet be brought into cultivation. Tortola itself is not more than 15 miles long and six miles broad.

The exports of 1787, that were raised by the labour of 1,200 whites, and 9,000 blacks, in the whole of these islands belonging to Great Britain, amounted in value to £.166,959 12*s.* 6*d.*; of which the proportions to different parts were as follow:—

	£.	*s.*	*d.*
To Great Britain, - - -	164,128	17	6
American States, - -	1,499	9	0
British Colonies in America,	1,230	15	0
Foreign W. Indies, - -	100	11	0
	166,959	12	6

The exports from Tortola alone, the principal island, into Great Britain, for the year 1810, amounted to £.61,520.

The Virgin Islands extend, as before observed, for the space of 24 leagues, from *e.* to *w.* and nearly approach the *e.* coast of Puerto Rico. They lie about lat. 18° 20′ *n.* and the course through them, with due attention, is perfectly safe at *w.* by *n.* and *w. n. w.* as far as the *w.* end of the fourth island. Leave this on the starboard side, and the island called Foul Cliff, on the larboard, between which there is 16 fathoms, and a free channel to the *w.* before there is any alteration of the course; for though there be but six or seven fathoms in some places, it is no where shoaler, and in some places there is from 16 to 20 fathoms. The island of Anguilla, on the *n.* side of St. Martin's Island, is *e. s. e.* from them.]

Virgin, a point of land or cape of the coast of the Strait of Magellan; one of those which form the entrance into the N. Sea, in lat. 52° 30° *s.*

Virgin, another cape or point of land, on the coast of the Gulf of California or Mar Roxo de Cortes, to the *w.* of the Cape of San Marcos.

Virgin, a bay, which like the W. Indian Virgin Isles, is called of the Eleven Thousand Virgins (De las Once Mil Vigines). It is on the *n.* coast of the Strait of Magellan, between the bays of Santiago and San Gregorio.

Virgin. Some very lofty mountains of the province of Californias, between the cape of this name and the Bay of Concepcion, in the which, in the year 1746, were discovered several volcanoes.

VIRGINIA, a province and colony of the English in N. America, the first province which the English possessed in this part of the world,

they having given this name to the whole of the country, which was afterwards divided into different provinces and colonies. This colony, which was founded by Sir Walter Raleigh, was thrice destroyed by the Indians, and for the fourth time, re-established by Lord Delaware in the reign of King Charles I. of England. It was again thrown into a state of disturbance through a gentleman of the name of Bacon, but whose death put a stop to the ruinous consequences which threatened to ensue. The inhabitants are 650,000, the greater part Negroes. Indeed, the number of these, alone, amounts to 500,000; and the importation of them anually is from 7,000 to 8,000.

[Virginia, now one of the United States, lies between lat. 36° 30′ and 40° 40′ *n.* and between long. 75° 30′ and 83° 8′ *w.* It is in length 386 miles, in breadth 245 at its broadest part, containing about 70,000 square miles; bounded *n.* by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania and Ohio River, *w.* by Kentucky, *s.* by N. Carolina, and *e.* by the Atlantic Ocean. This State is divided into 82 counties, (and by another division into parishes) which, with the number of inhabitants, according to the census of 1790, are mentioned in the following table:—

West of the Blue Ridge.

Counties.	Slaves.	Total Inhabitants.
Ohio	281	5,212
Monongalia	154	4,768
Washington	450	5,625
Montgomery, Wythe, Botetourt	2,087	23,752
Greenbriar, Kanawa	319	6,015
Hampshire	454	7,346
Berkly	2,932	19,713
Frederick	4,250	19,681
Shenandoah	512	10,510
Rockingham	772	7,449
Augusta	1,222	10,886
Rockbridge	682	6,548

Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide Waters.

Loudoun	4,030	18,962
Fauquier	6,642	17,892
Culpepper	8,226	22,105
Spotsylvania	5,933	11,252
Orange	4,421	9,921
Louisa	4,573	8,467
Goochland	4,656	9,053
Flavania	1,466	3,921
Albemarle	5,579	12,585
Amherst	5,296	13,703
Buckingham	4,168	9,779
Bedford	2,754	10,531
Henry	1,551	8,479
Pittsylvania	2,979	11,579
Halifax	5,565	14,722
Charlotte	4,816	10,078
Prince Edward	3,986	8,100
Cumberland	4,434	8,153
Powhatan	4,325	6,822
Amelia, Nottaway	11,307	18,097
Lunenburg	4,332	8,959
Mecklenburg	6,762	14,733
Brunswick	6,776	12,827

Between James River and Carolina.

Greensville	3,620	6,362
Dinwiddie	7,334	13,934
Chesterfield	7,487	14,214
Prince George	4,519	8,173
Surry	3,097	6,227
Sussex	5,387	10,554
Southampton	5,993	12,864
Isle of Wight	3,867	9,028
Nansemond	3,817	9,010
Norfolk	5,345	14,524
Princess Ann	3,202	7,793

Between James and York Rivers.

Henrico	5,819	12,000
Hanover	8,223	14,754
New-Kent	3,700	6,239
Charles City	3,141	5,518
James City	2,405	4,070
Williamsburg, York	2,760	5,233
Warwick	990	1,690
Elizabeth City	1,876	3,450

Between York and Rappahannock Rivers.

Caroline	10,292	17,489
King William	5,151	8,128
King and Queen	5,143	9,377
Essex	5,440	9,122
Middlesex	2,558	4,140
Gloucester	7,063	13,498

Between Rappahannock and Patowmack Rivers.

Fairfax	4,574	12,320
Prince William	4,704	11,615
Stafford	4,036	9,588]

Counties.	Slaves.	Total Inhabitants.
[King George	4,157	7,366
Richmond	3,984	6,985
Westmoreland	4,425	7,722
Northumberland	4,460	9,163
Lancaster	3,236	5,638
Eastern Shore.		
Accomac	4,262	13,959
Northampton	3,244	6,889
New Counties.		
Campbell	2,488	7,685
Franklin	1,073	6,842
Harrison	67	2,080
Randolph	19	951
Hardy	369	7,336
Pendleton	73	2,452
Russel	190	3,338

Whole number of inhabitants, 747,610
of whom 292,627 were slaves.

By the census of 1810, the whole number was 965,079, giving an increase in 20 years of 217,469. —According to the latter census, there were of

Whites	548,320
Slaves	386,377
Free persons of colour	30,382
	965,079

In an extensive country, it will be expected that the climate is not the same in all its parts. It is remarkable that, proceeding on the same parallel of latitude *w.* the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed *n.* This continues to be the case till you attain the summit of the Alleghany, which is the highest land between the ocean and the Mississippi. From thence, descending in the same latitude to the Mississippi, the change reverses; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the same latitude on the sea-side. Their testimony is strengthened by the vegetables and animals which subsist and multiply there naturally, and do not on the sea-coast. Thus *catalpas* grow spontaneously on the Mississippi, as far as the latitude of 37°, and reeds as far as 38°. Parroquets even winter on the Scioto, in the latitude of 39°. The *s. w.* winds, *e.* of the mountains, are most predominant. Next to these, on the sea-coast, the *n. e.*, and at the mountains, the *n. w.* winds prevail. The difference between these winds is very great. The *n. e.* is loaded with vapour, insomuch that the salt manufacturers have found that their crystals would not shoot while that blows; it occasions a distressing chill, and a heaviness and depression of the spirits. The *n. w.* is dry, cooling, elastic, and animating. The *e.* and *s. e.* breezes come on generally in the afternoon. They have advanced into the county very sensibly within the memory of people now living. Mr. Jefferson reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above, and 6 below 0, in Fahrenheit's thermometer. The months of June and July, though often the hottest, are the most healthy in the year. The weather is then dry and less liable to change than in August and September, when the rain commences and sudden variations take place. On the sea-coast the land is low, generally within 12 feet of the level of the sea, intersected in all directions with salt creeks and rivers, the heads of which form swamps and marshes, and fenny ground, covered with water in wet seasons. The uncultivated lands are covered with large trees, and thick underwood. The vicinity of the sea, and salt creeks and rivers, occasion a constant moisture and warmth of the atmosphere, so that although under the same latitude, 100 or 150 miles in the country, deep snows and frozen rivers frequently happen for a short season, yet here such occurrences are considered as phenomena; for these reasons, the trees are often in bloom as early as the last of February; from this period, however, till the end of April, the inhabitants are incommoded by cold rains, piercing winds, and sharp frosts, which subject them to the inflammatory diseases, such as pleurisy and peripneumony.

The chief rivers are, Roanoke, James's, Nansemond, Chickahominy, Appamatox, Rivanna, York, Piankatank, Rappahannock, Patowmack, Shenandoah, and the Great Kanhaway. These rivers and creeks are described under their respective names. They abound with fish of various kinds, as sturgeon, shad, bass, carp, sheepshead, drum, herrings, perch, cat-fish, oysters, crabs, &c.

It is worthy of notice, that the mountains are not solitary and scattered confusedly over the face of the country; but commence at about 150 miles from the sea-coast, are disposed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the sea-coast, though rather approaching it as they advance *n. e.* See ALLEGHANY MOUNTAINS. In the same direction generally are the veins of lime-stone, coal, and other minerals hitherto discovered; and so range the falls of the great rivers. But the courses of the great rivers are at right angles with these. James and Pa-]

[towmack penetrate through all the ridges of mountains *e.* of the Alleghany, which is broken by no water-course. It is in fact the spine of the country between the Atlantic on one side, and the Mississippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The passage of the Patowmack through the Blue Ridge is perhaps one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. The mountains of the Blue Ridge, and of these, the Peaks of Otter, are thought to be of a greater height, measured from their base, than any others in Virginia, and perhaps in N. America. From data, which may found a tolerable conjecture, we suppose the highest peak to be about 400 feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of S. America, nor one-third of the height which would be necessary in our latitude to preserve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the Blue Ridge, called the North Mountain, is of the greatest extent; for which reason they are named by the Indians, The Endless Mountains. The Onasioto Mountains are 50 or 60 miles wide at the Gap. These mountains abound in coal, lime, and free-stone; the summits of them are generally covered with a good soil, and a variety of timber; and the low intervale lands are rich and remarkably well-watered. The whole country below the mountains, which are about 150, some say 200 miles from the sea, is level, and seems from various appearances to have been once washed by the sea. The land between York and James Rivers is very level, and its surface about 40 feet above high water mark. It appears from observation, to have arisen to its present height at different periods far distant from each other, and that at these periods it was washed by the sea; for near Yorktown, where the banks are perpendicular, you first see a stratum, intermixed with small shells resembling a mixture of clay and sand, and about five feet thick; on this lies horizontally, small white shells, cockle, clam, &c. an inch or two thick; then a body of earth, similar to that first mentioned, 18 inches thick; then a layer of shells and another body of earth; on this a layer of three feet of white shells mixed with sand, on which lay a body of oyster shells six feet thick, which were covered with earth to the surface. The oyster-shells are so united by a very strong cement, that they fall only when undermined, and then in large bodies from one to 20 tons weight. They have the appearance of large rocks on the shore. The soil below the mountains seems to have acquired a character for goodness which it by no means deserves. Though not rich, it is well suited to the growth of tobacco and Indian corn, and parts of it for wheat. Good crops of cotton, flax, and hemp, are also raised; and in some counties they have plenty of cider, and exquisite brandy, distilled from peaches, which grow in great abundance upon the numerous rivers of the Chesapeak. The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there used to be exported, generally, 55,000 hogsheads a year. Since the revolution, they are turning their attention more to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, barley, flax, and hemp. It is expected that this State will add the article of rice to the list of her exports; as it is supposed, a large body of swamp in the easternmost counties, is capable of producing it.

Horned or neat cattle are bred in great numbers in the *w.* counties of Virgina, as well as in the States *s.* of it, where they have an extensive range, and mild winters, without any permanent snows. They run at large, are not housed, and multiply very fast. In the lower parts of the State a disease prevailed some years ago among the neat cattle, which proved fatal to all that were not bred there. The oxen, from the more *n.* States, which were employed at the siege of Yorktown, in October, 1781, almost all died, sometimes 40 of them in a night, and often suddenly drop down dead in the roads. It is said that the seeds of this disease were brought from the Havanna to S. Carolina or Georgia in some hides, and that the disease has progressed *n.* to Virginia. Lord Dunmore imported some cattle from Rhode Island, and kept them confined in a small pasture, near his seat, where no cattle had been for some years, and where they could not intermix with other cattle, and yet they soon died. The gentlemen, being fond of pleasure, have taken much pains to raise a good breed of horses, and have succeeded in it beyond any of the States. They will give £.1000 sterling for a good stallion. Horse racing has had a great tendency to encourage the breeding of good horses, as it affords an opportunity of putting them to the trial of their speed. They are more elegant, and will perform more service, than the horses of the N. States.

Caves among the mountains, have lately been discovered, which yield saltpetre in such abundance, that 500,000lbs. of it might be collected from them annually. Virginia is the most pregnant with minerals and fossils of any State in the Union. A single lump of gold ore has been found, near the falls of Rappahannock River,]

[which yielded 17 dwt. of gold, of extraordinary ductility. No other indication of gold has been discovered in its neighbourhood. On the great Kanhaway, opposite to the mouth of Cripple Creek, and also about 25 miles from the *s.* boundary of the State, in the county of Montgomery, are mines of lead. The metal is mixed, sometimes with earth, and sometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of silver, too small to be worth separation, under any process hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from 50 to 80 lbs. of pure metal from 100 lbs. of washed ore. The most common is that of 60 to the 100 lbs. Copper, iron, black-lead, coal, marble, lime-stone, &c. are found in this country. Crystals are common. Some amethysts, and one emerald have been discovered.

Every able-bodied freeman, between the ages of 16 and 50, is enrolled in the militia. Those of every county are formed into companies, and these again into one or more battalions, according to the numbers in the county. They are commanded by colonels and other subordinate officers, as in the regular service. In every county is a county lieutenant, who commands the whole militia in his county, but ranks only as a colonel in the field. They have no general officers always existing. These are appointed occasionally, when an invasion or insurrection happens, and their commission ceases with the occasion. The governor is head of the military as well as civil power. The law requires every militia man to provide himself with the arms usual in the regular service. The intersection of Virginia by so many navigable rivers, renders it almost incapable of defence. As the land will not support a great number of people, a force cannot soon be collected to repel a sudden invasion. The militia, in 1792, amounted to about 68,000 men.

This State is not divided into townships, nor are there any towns of consequence, owing probably to the intersection of the country by navigable rivers, which brings the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevents the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance. The principal towns, or more properly villages or hamlets, are as follows. On James River, and its waters, Norfolk, Portsmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamsburg, Petersburg, Richmond, Manchester, Charlottesville, New London. —On York River, and its waters, York, Newcastle, Hanover.—On Rappahannock, Urbanna, Port Royal, Fredericksburg, Falmouth.—On Patowmack, and its waters, Dumfries, Colchester, Alexandria, Winchester, and Staunton. There are places, at which, like some of the foregoing, the laws have said there shall be towns; but nature has said there shall not, and they remain unworthy of enumeration. Norfolk will probably become the emporium for all the trade of the Chesapeak Bay and its waters; and a canal of eight or 10 miles, which is contemplated, and will probably soon be completed, will bring to it all that of Albemarle Sound and its waters. Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide-waters, to wit, Petersburg on Appamattox, Richmond on James River, Newcastle on York River, Fredericksburg on Rappahannock, and Alexandria on Patowmack. From these the distribution will be to subordinate situations of the country. Accidental circumstances, however, may control the indications of nature, and in no instances do they do it more frequently than in the rise and fall of towns. The college of William and Mary was founded about the beginning of this century. See WILLIAMSBURG. —The academy in Prince Edward County has been erected into a college, by the name of Hampden Sidney College. There are a number of academies in different parts of Virginia, one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in other places. The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are Presbyterians, who are most numerous, Episcopalians, Baptists, and Methodists.

The exports of this State, in the year 1791, ending Sept. 30, amounted to 3,131,227 dollars; in 1792, 3,549,499 dollars; in 1793, 2,984,317 dollars; in 1794, 3,321,494 dollars; and in 1796, 5,268,615 dollars. In 1790, about 40,000 hhds. of tobacco were exported; but its culture has since declined, and that of wheat taken its place. The greatest quantity of tobacco every produced in this country, in one year, was 70,000 hhds. in the year 1758.

Virginia was settled permanently, after several preceding unsuccessful attempts, in 1610, being the earliest established of any of the UNITED STATES; to which article, for a more copious information of this State, the reader is referred.]

The capital is Williamsburg; the two capes or points of land, called Henry and Charles, form the entrance of the Bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest and most handsome in the known world, it being no less than 16 miles wide at its mouth.]

[*LIST of Presidents and Governors of Virginia, from its first Settlement to the Year* 1624.

Edward Maria Winfield,	from	May,	1607,	to	Sept.	1607
John Ratcliffe, - - - - - - -		Sept.	1607,	to	July,	1608
Mat. Scrivener, Vice President, -		July,	1608,	to	Sept.	1608
John Smith, - - - - - - - -		Sept.	1608,	to	Sept.	1609
George Percy, Governor, - - -		Sept.	1609,	to	May,	1610
Sir Thomas Gates, - - - - -		May,	1610,	to	June,	1610
Lord Delaware, - - - - - -		June,	1610,	to	March,	1611
George Percy, - - - - - - - -		March,	1611,	to	May,	1611
Sir Thomas Dale, - - - - - - -		May	1611,	to	August,	1611
Sir Thomas Gates, - - - - -		August,	1611,	to		1614
Sir Thomas Dale, - - - - -			1614,	to		1616
George Yeardley, - - - - -			1616,	to		1617
Samuel Argall, - - - - - -			1617,	to		1619
George Yeardley, - - - - -			1619,	to	Nov.	1621
Sir Francis Wyat, - - - - -		Nov.	1621,	to		1624]

VIRGINS, Rochers des. Some rocky shoals near the *s.* coast of Newfoundland, within the Bay of Plaisance.

VIRO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Aimaraez in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Mollebamba.

VIROA, a lake of the province and country of Las Amazonas, in the part possessed by the Portuguese. It is formed by a waste-water of this river, and is situate between the lakes Mamia and Quamarú.

VIRO-VIRO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huanta in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of its capital.

VIRU, a large and beautiful valley of the province and *corregimiento* of Truxillo in Peru; situate nine leagues *s. e.* of the city, in the road leading to Lima, and which is called De Los Valles, inasmuch as near it are also the vallies of Guaman, Saña, and Chico. It would be very fertile were it supplied with other water than what it has by a small river of its name. It is said that this valley gave name to Peru; for some persons belonging to Vasco Nuñez de Bilboa, exploring the country, and asking of an Indian what was the name of that land, received for answer, Virú, which in the idiom of the country signifies river; the name of Peru being thus a corruption of the same word.

Viru, San Pedro de, a settlement of this province and kingdom; founded in the former valley and on the shore of the said river. It was once large and populous, but now reduced to a village of about 100 Indians.

Viru, the aforesaid river, rises in the province of Guamachuco, from some mountains which they call Los Pedernales, and runs 18 leagues, collecting in its course the waters of a smaller river called Izquiocda, when it enters the S. Sea. In the rainy season it swells prodigiously; but in the summer it experiences a great drought.

VIRUBA, a settlement of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the abundant river Ariari.

VISACACA. See Guallaga.

VISCAPALCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Castro Virreyna in Peru; annexed to the curacy of Totos, in the province of Vilcashuaman.

VISCAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Yauyos, in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Ayaviri. In its vicinity is a stone or slab, on which, according to the vulgar tradition of the Indians, the apostle St. Batholomew had reclined. On the same there were formerly some characters sculptured, which the archbishop's vicar ordered to be obliterated.

VISCHONGO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Vilcas Huaman in Peru.

VISECA, a settlement and *asiento* of silver mines of the province and *corregimiento* of Lucanas in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of its capital.

VISITACION, a settlement of Indians of the province of Californias; situate on the sea-shore, between the settlements of Santa Isabel and San

Estanislao, in the interior of the gulf or Mar Roxo de Cortés.

VISKILL, a settlement of the province of New York in the United States of America; on the shore of the river Hudson.

VISO, San Miguel del, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huarochiri in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of San Mateo de Huanchor.

VISUANTA, a small river of the province and government of Huanuco in Peru; which rises in the *cordillera*, runs *n.* and incorporates itself with the Marañon at its source.

VITA, a river of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises *s.* of the Meta, near the settlement of San Joaquin, runs nearly parallel to that river for many leagues, and enters the Orinoco, opposite the rapid stream of the Carichana.

VITIS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Yauyos in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Laraos.

[VITTORIA, St. Juan de, a city of Peru. See Guamanga, its most common name.]

[Vittoria, a town of the province and government of Venezuela. It was almost entirely demolished by the earthquake that happened on Holy Thursday, in the year 1812. It is the same as that described under the article Victoria; which see.]

VITUIMA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Tunja in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, and of the district of the jurisdiction of Tocaima. It is of a very hot temperature, poor, and of a reduced population, but producing some sugar-cane, maize, *yucas*, and plantains.

VIVORA, or Pedro, shoals or rocks of the N. Sea, situate 30 miles *s.* of the island of Jamaica. They are 105 miles long from *e.* to *w.*, very dangerous for vessels, many of these having been wrecked on it; and amongst the rest, in 1690, the ships called the Angel, Nuestra Señora del Carmen, and Nuestra Señora de la Concepcion, all of them galleons, under the charge of the Marquis del Bao del Maistre. Also, in 1694, were wrecked here the galleons under the command of the Count of Saucedilla; in 1738, the frigate of war, called the Genovesa, commanded by the captain Don Francisco Guiral; and the squadron of the admiral Don Antonio Cotaire, which was sailing from Caracas to Vera Cruz. [The *e.* head is in lat. 17° *n.* and long. 76° 29′ *w.*]

Vivora, a small river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres; which runs *w.* and enters the Huruguay near its entrance into the Plata.

Vivora, a cape or point of land on the coast of the province and government of Guayana, in the part possessed by the Dutch, and which they call Addershoec.

[VIVORAS, a parish of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, situate on the Paraná, about 45 miles *n.* of Buenos Ayres, in lat. 33° 56′ 20″ *s.* and long. 58° 11′ 30″.]

Vivoras, Mountain of the, in the province and government of Buenos Ayres; situate on the shore of the river Saladillo, near the coast which lies between the river La Plata and the Strait of Magellan.

Vivoras, a lake of this province and government; formed by an arm or waste water of the river Salado, in the province of Tucumán.

VIVORILLAS, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province of Taraumara and kingdom of Nueva Vizcaya: 32 leagues *w. s. w.* $\frac{1}{4}$ *s.* of the town and *real* of mines of San Felipe de Chiguagua.

VIURUQUANTI, a river of the province and government of Darien and kingdom of Tierra Firme. It rises in the mountains in the interior of this province, runs nearly due *w.* and enters the Chucunaqui.

VIZARRON, a settlement of the province and government of Nueva Santander or Sierra Gorda, in the Bay of Mexico and kingdom of Nueva España; founded in 1748 by the Count of Sierra Gorda, Don Joseph de Escandón, colonel of militia of Queretaro, who gave it this name in honour of the archbishop of Mexico, Don Juan Joseph de Vizarrón.

VIZCAYA, Nueva, a kingdom of N. America; bounded *n.* by the kingdom of Nuevo Mexico; *s.* by that of Nueva Galicia; *e.* by that of Nuevo Leon; and *w.* by that of Californias. It is 200 leagues long from *n.* to *s.* from the *real* of mines of Chalchichihuites to the garrison of the Paso del Norte, and nearly as many wide. It comprehends the provinces of Tepeguana, Taraumara, Batopilas, Sinaloa, Culiacán, Ostimuri, Sonora, Pimeria alta and baxa, and Chiametlán; in which articles we have given notice of the corresponding climates, productions, situation, and commerce. This extensive country is traversed and irrigated by the grand river of Las Nasas. It was peopled by the captain Francisco de Ibarra, in the time of the viceroy Don Luis de Velasco, Marquis of Salinas; and the natives were reduced to the Catholic faith by

the Jesuits, although they have made insurrections at different times. It is bounded by the barbarian Indians the Chichimecas; as a defence against whom 12 garrisons were established on the frontier, with the names of

Nayarit,	Conchos,
Pasage,	El Passo,
El Gallo,	Janos,
Mapimi,	Fronteras,
Zerrogordo,	Sinaloa,
San Bartolome,	Adais,

each being a great distance from each other: but, although the viceroys have added some others of late, yet still do the Chichimecas, despising all the rules of civilized life, disperse themselves like wild beasts about the mountains, without any fixed abode, living in caverns, and betraying few of the characteristics of rational creatures.

The principal productions of this kingdom are wheat, maize, and other European seeds, much large and small cattle and horses. It has also many rich mines of silver; and, in its woods, are abundance of different kinds of trees, and many wild beasts and birds; nor are there wanting many saline grounds. Its jurisdiction consists of the following *alcaldías mayores*.

Saltillo,	Cinaloa,
Laguna,	Minas de Topia,
Guanaval,	Minas de San Andres,
San Antonio de Cuencamé,	Minas de Dihastla,
S. Juan del Rio,	Mascatlán,
Minas de Coreto,	Chiametlan,
Minas de Mapimi,	Xalisco,
Minas de Chindea,	Minas de Maloya,
Minas de Santa Barbara,	San Sebastian,
San Bartolomé,	Minas de Panico,
Minas de Guanacevi,	San Francisco del Mesquital.

[The present population of Vizcaya is estimated by Pike, in the account of his travels, at 200,000, and Humboldt will have it at 159,700. According to the enumeration of the former, three-twentieths are Spaniards from Europe, five-twentieths Creoles, five-twentieths Mustees and Quatroons, and seven-twentieths Indians. The same author estimates the population of Durango, the capital, at 40,000 souls; Humboldt at 12,000. Vizcaya trades with New Mexico, Señora, and the Viceroyalty. The present manufactures are some few arms, blankets, tamp leather, embroidery, coarse cotton, and woollen cloths; and some of their blankets sell for 25 dollars. They cultivate wheat, corn, rice, oats, cotton, flax, indigo, and vines. This province is supposed to have been populated about 280 years. The military force of Vizcaya consists, in ordinary, of 1,100 dragoons, besides a militia, who are not much worthy of note.]

Vizcaya. The capital is the city of Durango.

VIZCAINO, Cayo, an isle or rocky shoal of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Florida, between the coast and the shoal of La Parida.

VIZTLAN, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Chiapa, in the kingdom of Guatemala.

[VOLCANIC Island, lies *n. w.* of the Island of Santa Cruz, about eight leagues in the Pacific Ocean, in which Mendana, in 1595, saw a volcano, which flamed continually, in lat. 10° 30′ *s.*]

[VOLUNTOWN, a township on the *e.* line of Connecticut, Windham County, *e.* of Plainfield, 11 *n. e.* of Norwich, and 26 *s. w.* of Providence. It was settled in 1696, having been granted to volunteers in the Narraganset war; hence its name. It was incorporated in 1719. It is 20 miles long, and between three and four broad, and has a large swamp abounding with white pine, sufficient to supply the neighbouring towns with materials for building.]

VUL, Point, or cape or extremity of the coast of the province and *captainship* of Seara in Brasil; between the rivers Uquiquara and Persi.

VUNCUMIRI, a channel of water, forming a communication between the river Maracapura and the lake Vanama, in the province and country of Las Amazonas.

VYUMBICHU, a settlement of the province and kingdom of Quito, in the *corregimiento* of the district of Las cinco Leguas de la Capital.

W

[WABASH is a beautiful navigable river, of the N. W. Territory, which runs a *s. w.* and *s.* course, and empties into the Ohio, by a mouth 270 yards wide, in lat. 37° 41′ *n.* 168 miles from the mouth of the Ohio, and 1,022 miles below Pittsburg. In the spring, summer, and autumn, it is passable in batteaux and barges, drawing about three feet water, 412 miles, to Ouiatanon; and for large canoes 197 miles further, to the Miami carrying-place, nine miles from Miami village. This village stands on Miami River, which empties into the *s. w.* part of Lake Erie. The communication between Detroit and the Illinois and Ohio countries, is up Miami River to Miami village, thence by land nine miles, when the rivers are high, and from 18 to 30 when they are low, through a level country to the Wabash, and through the various branches of the Wabash to the places of destination. The land on this river is remarkably fertile. A silver mine has been discovered about 28 miles above Ouiatanon, on the *n.* side of the Wabash. Salt springs, lime, free-stone, blue, yellow, and white clay, are found in plenty on this river. The copper mine on this river is, perhaps, the richest vein of native copper in the bowels of the whole earth. See VINCENTS and OUIATANON.]

[WABASH, LITTLE, runs a course *s. s. e.* and falls into the Wabash, 10 miles from the Ohio.]

[WABUSCOMMONG, a lake of Canada, in N. America, one of those on the communication between Lake Simcoe and the Rice Lake.]

WACABARI, a port of the river Poumarón, in the province and government of Guayana, in the part possessed by the Dutch.

WACAYO, a settlement of the province and colony of N. Carolina, on the shore of the river Yadkin.

[WACHOVIA, or DOBB'S PARISH, a tract of land in N. Carolina, situate between the *e.* side of Yadkin River, and the head waters of Haw and Deep Rivers, consisting of about 100,000 acres, partly in Stokes and Surry Counties. The United Brethren, or Moravians, purchased this tract of Lord Granville, in 1751, and called it Wachovia, after the name of an estate of Count Zinzendorf, in Germany. In 1755, it was made a separate parish, and named Dobbs, by the legislature. The settlement of Bethabara was begun in 1753, by a number of the Brethren from Pennsylvania. Salem, which is the principal settlement, commenced in 1766, and is inhabited by a number of ingenious tradesmen. This thriving parish lies about 10 miles *s.* of Pilot Mountain, and contains six churches.]

[WACHQUATNACH, an ancient Moravian settlement in Connecticut, on Stratford River; 23 miles from its mouth.]

[WACHUSET MOUNTAIN, in the town of Princetown, Massachusetts, may be seen in a clear horizon, at the distance of 67 miles, being 2,989 feet above the level of the sea.]

WACUNY, a settlement of Indians of the province and colony of N. Carolina; in the *s.* part, and at the source of the river Tugelo.

[WADESBOROUGH, the chief town of Anson County, in Fayetteville District, N. Carolina. It contains a court-house, gaol, and about 30 houses; and being seated on a lofty hill, is both pleasant and healthy: it is 57 miles *w.* of Fayetteville, and 43 *s. e.* by *s.* of Salisbury.]

WADMALA, a small island of the N. Sea; situate near the coast of the province and government of Georgia; one of those called Georgian, and situate near the island of Edisto.

[WADSWORTH, a town of New York, Ontario County; situate on the *e.* bank of Genesse River, 4 miles *w.* of Conesus Lake, and 13 *s. w.* by *s.* of Hartford.]

[WADHAM ISLANDS, near the *n. e.* coast of Newfoundland Island. Lat. 49° 57′ *n.* long. 53° 37′ *w.*]

WAERT. See SEBALD.

WAGER, a port of the *s.* coast of Nova Scotia, or Acadia, between Black Cape and Green Creek.

[WAGER'S STRAIT, or RIVER, in New N. Wales, in N. America, lies in lat. 65° 23′ *n.* and is about two or three miles wide. At five or six miles within its entrance, it is six or eight leagues wide, having several islands and rocks in the middle. It has soundings from 16 to 30 and 44 fathoms; and the land on both sides is high, (according to captain Middleton's account) as any in England. Savage Sound, a small cove or harbour, fit for ships to anchor in, lies on the *n.* shore, 13 or 14 leagues up the Strait, in long.

87° 50′ *w.* All the country from Wager's Strait to Seal River, is in some maps called New Denmark. Captain Monk was sent thither, in 1610, by the King of Denmark, and wintered at a place called Monk's Winter Harbour, in lat. 63° 20′ *n.* which must be a little *n.* of Rankin's Inlet. When captain Ellis was in this latitude, the tide ran at the rate of from 8 to 10 leagues an hour. He compares it to the sluice of a mill.]

WAGOMAU, a river of the province and colony of S. Carolina; which runs *s. e.* and then turns *s.* to enter the sea.

Wagomau, a lake of the same province, on the shore of the former river.

[WAHPACOOTA. Indians of N. America, who rove in the country *s. w.* of the river St. Peters, from a place called the Hardwood, to the mouth of the Yellow Medicine River: they are never stationary but when their traders are with them, and this does not happen at any regular or fixed point. At present they treat their traders tolerably well. Their trade cannot be expected to increase much. A great proportion of their country consists of open plains, lies level, and is tolerably fertile. They maintain a partial traffic with the Yanktons and Tetons to the *w.* of them; to these they barter the articles which they obtain from the traders on the river St. Peters, and receive in return horses, some robes, and leather lodges.]

[WAHPATONE. Indians of N. America, who claim the country in which they rove on the *n. w.* side of the river St. Peters, from their village to the mouth of the Chippeway River, and thence north-eastwardly towards the head of the Mississippi, including the Crow-wing River. Their lands are fertile, and generally well timbered. They are only stationary while their traders are with them, which is from the beginning of October to the latter end of March. Their trade is supposed to be at its greatest extent. They treat their traders with respect, and seldom attempt to rob them. This, as well as the other Sioux bands, act, in all respects, as independently of each other as if they were a distinct nation.]

[WAINFLEET, a township of Upper Canada, N. America, in the county of Lincoln. It lies *w.* of Humberstone, and fronts Lake Erie, being watered by the Welland or Chippewa to the *n.*]

WAINY, a river of the province and government of Cumaná, which runs *n.* and enters the sea between those of Amacuro and Moruga.

WAIT, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the district and parish of S. Joseph, near the *e.* coast.

Wait, another settlement in this island, of the district of the parish of San Lucas; also situate on the *e.* coast.

[WAITSFIELD, the south-easternmost township of Chittenden County, Vermont, containing 61 inhabitants.]

[WAIT'S River rises in Orange County, Vermont, and empties into Connecticut River, at Bradford.]

[WAJOMICK, an Indian town on Susquehannah River, about 400 miles from the sea. In the spring of 1756, the Indians shot two seals here, and they could not sufficiently express their astonishment at the sight of these animals unknown to them.]

[WAKE, an inland county, of Hillsborough district, N. Carolina, bounded *n. w.* by Orange, and *e.* and *s. e.* by Johnson. It contained in 1790, 10,192 inhabitants, including 2,463 slaves. Chief town, Raleigh.]

[WAKEFIELD, formerly East-town and Watertown, a township of Stratford County, New Hampshire, *e.* of Wolfborough, incorporated in 1774. It contained, in 1790, 640 inhabitants. In the *n. e.* part is a pond which is the source of Piscataque River.]

WAKKAMAW, a beautiful lake, 26 miles in circuit, situate in Bladen County, N. Carolina. The lands on its *e.* shores are fertile, and the situation delightful, gradually ascending from the shores, bounded on the *n. w.* coast by vast rich swamps, fit for rice. This lake is the source of a fine river, of the same name, and runs a southerly course, for 70 or 80 miles, and empties into Winyaw Bay, at George Town, in S. Carolina.]

WALBISCH, an island of the river Dissequeve, in the province of Guayana, and in the part possessed by the Dutch.

[WALDEN, a township of Vermont, Caledonia County, having Danville on the *s. e.* It contains only 11 inhabitants.]

[WALDOBOROUGH, a post-town and port of entry of the district of Maine, in Lincoln County, 12 miles *s.* by *w.* of Warren, 10 *e.* by *n.* of Newcastle, 20 *e.* of Wiscasset. This is the port of entry for the district, lying between the towns of Camden and Northport; and all the shores and waters from the middle of Damariscotta River to the *s. w.* side of the town of Northport. The township of Waldoborough was incorporated in 1773, and contained, in 1790, 1,210 inhabitants.]

[WALDO Patent, a tract of land forming the *s. e.* part of Hancock County, in the district of Maine, and on the *w.* side of Penobscot River and Bay.]

WALES, New North, a country of America, having the tract called Prince William to the *n.*; part of Baffin's Bay to the *e.*; the unknown lands called New Denmark, to the *s.*; and another country, also unknown, to the *w.* If the supposition that Wager Strait communicates with the *e.* ocean, or S. Sea, were true, (and it is not improbable) this country would be entirely separate from the Continent of America, it being situate on the other side of the Polar Circle, near the entrance of the Strait of Wager Strait.

This country of New N. Wales is but little known; and we have no accounts of the territory situate to the *s.* of the said Strait, other than those made by Captain Middleton, in his voyage in 1742; and the observations of Mr. Dobbs, who asserts, that between lat. 62° and 63° is a Strait called Welcome by Mr. Thomas Roe; and in 66° 30′ a fine cape or point of land on the *w.* shore of the said Strait. It is further asserted, that the land, running from *e.* to *n.* and from this *rhumb* to the *w.*, gave indications of being the extreme part of America, and was, for this reason, called Cape Hope; but from this cape, as soon as it was doubled, the sea was found, to the great mortification of the navigators, to extend still farther, from whence they named it Repulse Bay; [an appellation which it acquired in the year 1742.]

WALES, New South, another extensive country of America, on the *s.* part of Hudson's Bay; it is bounded *e.* and *s.* by Canada, and *w.* by some unknown lands, which are inhabited by many tribes of Indians. Its size is not, however, exactly ascertained; for the English, who are the only people who trade to this part, have their establishments on the coast only, and none in the interior. From the river St. Margarite, which enters the St. Lawrence, to the river Rupert in Hudson's Bay, the distance is not more than 150 miles. The large continent on the *e.* side of the bay is called Labrador, and that on the *w.* New N. Wales, whilst that properly denominated New S. Wales lies, exactly *s.* and at the bottom of the bay, forming, as it were, the base of a triangle. Here the Hudson's Company have many establishments. Five or six leagues from land is an island called Little Rocky Island; the same being a mountain of stones, on which some trees have grown; and which is covered by the sea when the wind blows from *n. w.*, so as to increase the high tides. The island of Charlton, which is composed of a white sand, is covered with trees, with ginger plants and other shrubs, although not of great size; and the aspect of the country is extremely reviving to such as approach to the island, after a long and perilous voyage of three or four months through seas unknown, and terrific, through the vast mountains of ice which are found in the bay and its straits; for should a vessel unfortunately run against these huge masses, it becomes fast held and by degrees frozen in. On one day to see the *w.* coast entirely naked, its mountains covered with snow, and, on all sides, the dreary waste of winter; and, on the next, the beautiful island of Charlton, with the verdure of its trees and shrubs, forming one beautiful carpet of green, is a change calculated to excite the most pleasing sensations. The air, as far as towards the bottom of Hudson's Bay, is, for nine months, excessively cold; and, in three other months, very hot, except when the *n. w.* wind blows. In 1667 Guillan, an Englishman, arrived at Baffin's Bay, in lat. 75°, and, from thence passed *s.* as far as 51°, when he entered a river, to which he gave the name of Prince Rupert; and finding that the natives here were disposed to a friendly commerce, he erected a small fort, giving it the name of Charlesfort. After this, in consideration of the happy event of this expedition, those who had been interested in it, obtained a patent-grant from Charles II. to establish themselves here in 1670. The merchandize which they bring consists of powder, ball, cloth, knives, padlocks, tobacco, and other effects; taking in exchange of the natives the skins of castors, foxes, and other skins. The vast profits of this trade, and the great probabilities of an increase of the same, led the English to spare no pains to ensure the good will of the Indians. These are very tractable and disposed to rationality; and, indeed, the inhabitants of the river Rupert and other parts of the bay have a greater simplicity of character than have those of Canada; although the latter have enjoyed the greatest intercourse with Europeans. The Indians of whom we treat are peaceably inclined, as well amongst themselves as to strangers; with the exception of the Nodways, a barbarous and ferocious race, dwelling on the confines of Hudson's Bay.

[Wales, a plantation in Lincoln County, district of Maine, 55 miles *n. e.* of Portland. It contains 439 inhabitants.]

[WALHALDING, the Indian name of an *e.* branch of Muskingum River, at the mouth of

which stood Goschachguenk, a Delaware town, and settlement of Christian Indians.]

WALKERS, a city of the province and colony of N. Carolina; situate at the source of the river Cumberland, and founded in 1750.

WALKERS, a small river of the above province, which runs *n. e.*, and enters the Conahuay between those of Pointe and De Pierres.

WALKERTOWN, a settlement of King and Queen County, in the province and colony of Virginia; situate on the *n.* side of the river Mattaponi, 15 miles *n. e.* of Newcastle.

[WALLINGFORD, a township of Vermont, Rutland County, *e.* of Tinmouth. It contained, in 1790, 536 inhabitants.]

[WALLINGFORD, a pleasant post-town of Connecticut, New-Haven County, 13 miles *s. w.* of Middleton, 12 *n. e.* of New-Haven, and 195 *n. e.* of Philadelphia. This township, called by the Indians *Coginchauge*, was settled in 1671; is divided into two parishes, and contained, in 1790, about 2000 inhabitants. It is 12 miles long and 7 broad.]

[WALLKILL, a township of New York, Ulster County, on the creek of its name, about 12 miles *n.* by *e.* of Goshen, 11 *w.* of Newburgh, and 52 *n. w.* of New York city. It contained, in 1790, 2571 inhabitants, of whom 340 were qualified electors, and 103 slaves.]

[WALNUT HILLS, in the *w.* territory of Georgia, are situate on a tract of land formed by Mississippi River and the Loosa Chitto, and on the *n.* side of the latter.]

[WALLOOMSCHACK, a small branch of Hoosack River, Vermont.]

[WALLPACK, a township in Sussex County, New Jersey, on Delaware River, about 11 miles *w.* of Newtown. It contained, in 1790, 496 inhabitants, including 30 slaves.]

[WALPOLE, a post-town of New Hampshire, Cheshire County, on the *e.* side of Connecticut River, 12 miles *s.* of Charlestown, 14 *n. w.* by *n.* of Keen, and 74 *w.* of Portsmouth. The township contained, in 1790, 1245 inhabitants.]

[WALPOLE, a township of Massachusetts, Norfolk County, on the great road to Providence, and 22 miles *s. w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1724, and contained, in 1790, 1005 inhabitants.]

[WALPOLE, a township of Upper Canada, N. America, in the county of Norfolk, which lies *w.* of Rainham, and fronts Lake Erie.]

[WALSINGHAM, CAPE, is on the *e.* side of Cumberland's Island, in Hudson's Straits. Lat. 62° 39′ *n.* long. 77° 53′ *w.*]

[WALSINGHAM, a township of Upper Canada, N. America, which lies *w.* of Charlotteville, in the county of Norfolk, having the bay and marsh of Long Point in its front.]

WALTHAM, a small city of the county of Middlesex, in the Bay of Massachusetts, in the United States of America; five miles *s. e.* of Concord, four *s.* of Lexington, and eight *w.* of Cambridge. It was the place of head-quarters for the troops of the province of New Hampshire, in the battle of Bunker's Hill.

WALTON, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the district and jurisdiction of the city of Bridgetown.

WAMBAY, a settlement of the province and *captainship* of Sergipe, in Brazil; situate on the shore of the River Grande de San Francisco, near its entrance into the sea.

[WAMPANOS, an Indian tribe in N. America, allies of the Hurons.]

WANANOAK, a settlement of Indians of Canada, on the shore and at the source of the river Puante.

[WANASPATUCKET RIVER, rises in Gloucester, Rhode Island, and falls into Providence River, *n. w.* of Weybossett Bridge. Upon this river formerly stood the only powder mill in this state, and within one mile of its mouth there are two paper mills, two grist mills with four run of stones, an oil mill, a saw mill, and a slitting mill.]

WANDO, a small river of the province of Georgia, in the United States of America. It runs *s.* and joins the Cooper, at its mouth, below Charleston.

[WANOOETTE, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, about two miles in extent from *s. e.* to *n. w.* It is about 10 miles at *n. w.* by *w.* from the *n.* end of Wateehoo Island.]

[WANTAGE, a township near the *n. w.* corner of New Jersey, Sussex County, 15 miles *n.* of Newtown. It contained, in 1790, 1700 inhabitants, including 26 slaves.]

[WAPOSE, an island in Lake Ontario, N. America; it lies off the *n.* point that makes Prince Edward's Bay, on the *e.* shore of Marysburgh.]

[WAPPACAMO RIVER, a large *s.* branch of Patomack River, which it joins in lat. 39° 39′ *n.* where the latter was formerly known by the name of Cohongoronto.]

[WAPUWAGAN, or WAPITWAGAN ISLANDS, on the Labrador coast, lie between lat. 50° and 50° 5′ *n.*, and between long. 59° 55′ and 60° 30′ *w.*]

WARAGANABO, a river of the province of Guayana; in the part possessed by the French.

[WARD, a township of Massachusetts, Worcester County, five miles *s.* of Worcester, and 37 *s. w.* of Boston, and contained, in 1790, 473 inhabitants.]

[WARDSBOROUGH, a township of Vermont, Windham County, 12 or 15 miles *w.* of Putney, and 27 *n. e.* of Bennington, and contained, in 1790, 753 inhabitants.]

[WARE, a township of Massachusetts, Hampshire County. It is 15 miles *n. e.* of Springfield, and 70 miles *w. n. w.* of Boston.]

[WAREHAM, a township of Massachusetts, Plymouth County, 38 miles *s.* by *e.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1739, and contained, in 1790, 854 inhabitants. Lat. 41° 45′ *n.* long. 70° 40′ *w.*]

WARIBA, a small river of the province and colony of Surinam, in the part of Guayana, possessed by the Dutch. It enters the sea close to the mouths of the Demerari and Essequibo.

WARIBU, a river of the same province and colony as the former.

[WARMINSTER, a small post-town of Virginia, on the *n.* side of James's River, in Amherst County, about 65 miles above Richmond. Contained, in 1790, about 40 houses and a tobacco warehouse. It is 24 miles from Charlottesville and nine from Newmarket. There is also a township of this name in Bucks County, Pennsylvania.]

[WARM SPRING, a ridge of mountains bear this name, a part of the Alleghany mountains; situate *n. w.* of the Calf Pasture, and famous for warm springs. The most efficacious of these are two springs in Augusta, near the sources of James's River, where it is called Jackson's River. They rise near the foot of the ridge of mountains, generally called the Warm Spring Mountains, but in the maps Jackson's Mountains. The one is distinguished by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot Spring. The warm spring issues with a very bold stream, sufficient to work a grist mill, and to keep the water of its bason, which is 30 feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, viz. 96° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The matter with which these waters is allied is very volatile; its smell indicates it to be sulphureous, as also does the circumstance of turning silver black. They relieve rheumatisms. Other complaints also of very different natures have been removed or lessened by them. It rains here four or five days in every week. The hot spring is about six miles from the warm, is much smaller, and has been so hot as to have boiled an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be lessened. It raises the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to 112 degrees, which is fever heat. It sometimes relieves where the warm spring fails. A fountain of common water, issuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a singular appearance. Comparing the temperature of these with that of the hot springs of Kamtschatka, of which Krachininnikow gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter raising the mercury to 200 degrees, which is within 12 degrees of boiling water. These springs are very much resorted to, in spite of a total want of accommodation for the sick. Their waters are strongest in the hottest months, which occasions their being visited in July and August principally. The sweet springs in the county of Botetourt, at the *e.* foot of the Alleghany, are about 42 miles from the warm springs.]

[WARNER, a township of New Hampshire, Hillsborough County. It was incorporated in 1774, and contained, in 1790, 863 inhabitants.]

[WARREN, a new county of the upper district of Georgia.]

[WARREN, a township of Grafton County, New Hampshire, *n. e.* of Orford adjoining, incorporated in 1763, and contained, in 1790, 206 inhabitants.]

[WARREN, a post-town of Rhode Island, in Bristol County, pleasantly situate on Warren River and the *n. e.* part of Narraganset Bay, four miles *n.* of Bristol, 10 *s. s. e.* of Providence, and 302 from Philadelphia. This is a flourishing town; carries on a brisk coasting and West India trade, and is remarkable for ship building. The whole township contained, in 1790, 1122 inhabitants, of whom 22 are slaves. Rhode Island college was first instituted in this town, and afterwards removed to Providence.]

[WARREN, a new township of Herkemer County, New York. It was taken from German Flats, and incorporated in 1796.]

[WARREN, a part of the township of Chenengo, in the State of New York, on Susquehannah River, bears this name in De Witt's map.]

[WARREN, a township of Connecticut, in Litchfield County, between the townships of Kent and Litchfield.]

[WARREN, a post-town of Virginia, 10 miles from Warminster, 21 from Charlottesville, and 326 from Philadelphia.]

[WARREN's Point, on the coast of Nova Scotia, is on the *e.* side of Chebucto Harbour, about two miles *e.* of the town of Halifax. It is at the entrance of a creek, which receives Saw Mill River and other streams.]

[WARRINGTON, the name of two townships of Pennsylvania; the one in York County, the other in Buck's County.]

[WARSAW, or WASSAW, an island and sound on the coast of Georgia, between the mouth of Savannah River and that of Ogeechee. The island forms the *n.* side of Ossabaw Sound; being in a *n. e.* direction from Ossabaw Island. Warsaw Sound is formed by the *n.* end of the island of its name, and the *s.* end of Tybee Island.]

[WARWICK, a county of Virginia, bounded *n.* by York County, and *s.* by James's River, which separates it from Isle of Wight and Nansemond Counties. It is the oldest county of the State, having been established in 1628. It contained, in 1790, 1690 inhabitants, of whom 990 were slaves.]

[WARWICK, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire County, incorporated in 1763, and contained, in 1790, 1246 inhabitants. It is bounded *n.* by the State of New Hampshire, not far *e.* of Connecticut River, and is 78 miles *n. w.* of Boston.]

[WARWICK, the chief town of Kent County, Rhode Island; situate at the head of Narraganset Bay, and on the *w.* side, about eight miles *s.* of Providence. The township contained, in 1790, 2493 inhabitants, including 35 slaves. A cotton manufactory has been established in this town upon an extensive scale. One of Arkwright's machines was erected here in August, 1795; and the yarn produced answers the most sanguine expectation. This town was the birth-place of the celebrated General Greene.]

[WARWICK, a township of New York, Orange County, bounded *e.* by New Cornwall, and *s.* by the State of New Jersey. It contained, in 1790, 3603 inhabitants, of whom 383 were electors and 95 slaves.]

[WARWICK, the name of two townships of Pennsylvania; the one in Buck's County, the other in that of Lancaster. In the latter is the fine Moravian settlement called LITIZ; which see.]

[WARWICK, a post-town of Maryland, Cecil County, on the *e.* shore of Chesapeak Bay; about 14 miles *s* of Elkton, eight *n. e.* of George-town Cross Roads, and 46 *s. w.* of Philadelphia.]

[WARWICK, a small town of Chesterfield County, Virginia; agreeably situate on the *s. w.* side of James's River, about seven miles *s. s. e.* of Richmond, and 14 *n.* of Petersburg. Vessels of 250 tons burden can come to this town. In 1781, Benedict Arnold destroyed many vessels in the river and on the stocks at this place.]

WARU, a river of the province and *captainship* of Seara, in Brazil; which rises very near the coast, runs *n. n. e.* and enters the sea at the point of Mello.

[WASHAS, Indians of N. America, who, when the French first came into the Mississippi, lived on an island to the *s. w.* of New Orleans, called Barritara, and were the first tribe they became acquainted with, and were always friends. They afterwards lived on Bayau La Fosh; and, from being a considerable nation, are now reduced to five persons only, two men and three women, who are scattered in French families; have been many years extinct, as a nation, and their native language is lost.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of the district of Maine, and the most *e.* land in the United States. It is bounded *s.* by the ocean, *w.* by Hancock County, *n.* by Lower Canada, and *e.* by New Brunswick. It is about 200 miles in length, but its breadth is as yet undetermined. It was erected into a county in 1789; but has few towns yet incorporated. The coast abounds with excellent harbours. Although the winters are long and severe, yet the soil and productions are but little inferior to the other counties. The number of inhabitants in this country, according to the census of 1790, was 2758; but the increase since must have been very considerable. Chief town, Machias.

[WASHINGTON, a maritime county of the State of Rhode Island; bounded *n.* by Kent, *s.* by the N. Atlantic Ocean, *w.* by the State of Connecticut, and *e.* by Narraganset Bay. It is divided into seven townships, and contained, in 1790, 18,075 inhabitants, including 339 slaves. Chief town, S. Kingstown.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of New York; bounded *n.* by Clinton County, *s.* by Rensselaer, *s. w.* by Saratoga, *w.* by Herkemer, and *e.* by the State of Vermont. Until 1784 it was called Charlotte. It contained, in 1790, 14,042 inhabitants, including 742 slaves. In 1796 there were 3370 of the inhabitants qualified electors. It is subdivided into 12 townships, of which Salem is the chief.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of Pennsylvania; situate on the *s. w.* corner of the State; bounded *n.* by Alleghany County, *s.* by Monongalia County in Virginia, *e.* by Monongahela River, which divides it from Fayette County, and *w.* by Ohio County in Virginia, agreeably diversified with hills, which admit of easy cultivation quite to their summits. It is divided into 21 townships, and contained, in 1790, 23,866 inhabitants, in-

[cluding 263 slaves. Mines of copper and iron ore have been found in this county.]

[WASHINGTON, the capital of the above county, and a post-town, is situate on a branch of Charter's Creek, which falls into Ohio River, a few miles below Pittsburg. It contains a brick court house, a stone gaol, a large brick building for the public offices, an academy of stone, and nearly 100 dwelling-houses. It is 22 miles *s. s. w.* of Pittsburg, 22 *n. w.* of Brownsville, 38 *n.* by *w.* of Morgantown, in Virginia. Lat. *n.* 40° 13′ *w.* long. 80° 19′. It is remarkable for its manufactures for so young a town. There are three other townships of the same name in Pennsylvania, viz. in Fayette, Franklin, and Westmoreland Counties.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of Maryland, on the *w.* shore of Chesapeke Bay; bounded *n.* by the State of Pennsylvania, *e.* by Frederick County, from which it is divided by S. Mountain, *s. w.* by Patowmack River, which divides it from the State of Virginia, and *w.* by Sideling-Hill Creek, which separates it from Alleghany County. This is called the garden of Maryland, lying principally between the N. and S. Mountains, and includes the rich, fertile, and well cultivated valley of Conegocheague. Its streams furnish excellent mill seats, and the lands are thought to be the most fertile in the State. Lime-stone and iron-ore are found here. Furnaces and forges have been erected, and considerable quantities of pig and bar iron are manufactured. Chief town, Elizabeth Town.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of Virginia; bounded *e.* and *n. e.* by Wythe, *n. w.* by Russell, *s.* by the State of N. Carolina, and *w.* by Lee. It is watered by the streams which form Holston, Clinch, and Powell's Rivers. There is a natural bridge in this county similar to that in Rockbridge County. It is on Stock Creek, a branch of Peleson River. It contained, in 1790, 5625 inhabitants, including 450 slaves. Chief town, Abingdon.]

[WASHINGTON, a district of the upper country of S. Carolina, perhaps the most hilly and mountainous in the State. It lies *w.* of Ninety-Six district, of which it was formerly a part, and is bounded *n.* by the State of N. Carolina. It contains the counties of Pendleton and Greenville; and its population, in 1790, amounted to 14,619 inhabitants, sending to the State legislature five representatives and two senators. Chief town, Pickensville. A number of old deserted Indian towns of the Cherokee nation, are frequently met with on the Keowee River, and its tributary streams which water this country.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of Kentucky; bounded *n. e.* by Mercer, *n. w.* by Nelson, *s. e.* by Lincoln, and *w.* by Hardin.]

[WASHINGTON, a district of the State of Tennessee; situate on the waters of the rivers Holston and Clinch, and is divided from Mero district on the *w.* by an uninhabited country. It is divided into the counties of Washington, Sullivan, Greene, and Hawkins. It contained, according to the State census of 1795, 29,531 inhabitants, including 4693 slaves.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of Tennessee in the above district, contained, in 1795, 10,105 inhabitants, inclusive of 978 slaves. Washington college is established in this county by the legislature.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of the N. W. Territory, erected in 1788 within the following boundaries, viz. beginning on the bank of the Ohio where the *w.* line of Pennsylvania crosses it, and running with that line to Lake Erie; thence along the *s.* shore of that lake to the mouth of Cayahoga River, and up that river to the portage between it and the Tuscarawa branch of Muskingum; thence down that branch to the forks of the crossing-place above Fort Lawrence; thence with a line to be drawn *w.* to the portage, on that branch of the Big Miami on which the fort stood, which was taken from the French in 1752, until it meets the road from the Lower Shawanese Town to Sandusky; thence *s.* to the Sciota River to the mouth, and thence up the Ohio to the place of beginning.]

[WASHINGTON, a county of the upper district of Georgia, which contained, in 1790, 4552 inhabitants, including 694 slaves. Fort Fidus is situate in the westernmost part of the county, on the *e.* branch of Alatamaha River. The county is bounded on the *n. e.* by Ogeechee River. Numbers have lately moved here from Wilkes County, in order to cultivate cotton in preference to tobacco. This produce, though in its infancy, amounted to 208,000 lbs. weight in 1792. Chief town, Golphinton.]

[WASHINGTON, a township of Vermont, Orange County, 12 miles *w.* of Bradford. It contained, in 1790, 72 inhabitants.]

[WASHINGTON, a township of Massachusetts, in Berkshire County, seven miles *s. e.* of Pittsfield, eight *e.* of Lenox, and 98 *w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1777, and contained, in 1790, 588 inhabitants.]

[WASHINGTON, or Mount Vernon, a plantation of Lincoln County, district of Maine, *n. w.* of Hallowell, and nine miles from Sterling. It

consists of 16,055 acres of land and water, of which the latter occupies 1641 acres. It contained, in 1790, 618 inhabitants, and was incorporated by the name of BELGRADE in 1796; which see.]

[WASHINGTON, a township of New York, in Dutchess County, bounded *s.* by the town of Beekman, and *w.* by Poughkeepsie and Clinton. It contained, in 1790, 5189 inhabitants, of whom 286 were electors and 78 slaves.]

[WASHINGTON, a township of New Hampshire in Cheshire County, first called Camden. It was incorporated in 1776, and contained in 1790, 545 inhabitants. It is 12 or 14 miles *e.* of Charlestown.]

[WASHINGTON, a township of Connecticut in Litchfield County, about seven miles *s. w.* of Litchfield.]

[WASHINGTON, a port of entry and post-town of N. Carolina; situate in Beaufort County, on the *n.* side of Tar River, in lat. 35° 30′ *n.* 55 miles from Ocrecok Inlet, 22 from the mouth of Tar River, 38 *s. s. w.* of Edenton, 18 *n.* by *e.* of Newbern, and 95 *n. e.* by *n.* of Wilmington. It contains a court-house, gaol, and about 80 houses. From this town is exported tobacco of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef, Indian corn, peas, beans, pitch, tar, turpentine, rosin, &c. also pine boards, shingles, and oak staves. About 130 vessels entered annually at the custom-house in this town, in the year 1790. The exports for a year ending September 30, 1794, amounted to 33,684 dollars.]

[WASHINGTON, a post-town of Kentucky, and the capital of Mason County, about three miles *s.* by *w.* of the landing at Limestone, on the *s.* side of Ohio River. It contained in 1790, about 100 houses, a Presbyterian church, a handsome court-house and gaol, and is fast increasing in importance. It is 50 miles *n. e.* of Lexington, 61 *n. e.* by *e.* of Frankfort.]

[WASHINGTON Court-house, in S. Carolina, is 10 miles from Greenville, and 16 from Pendleton.]

[WASHINGTON, a post-town of Georgia, and the capital of Wilkes County, 40 miles *n. w.* by *w.* of Augusta, 41 *n.* by *w.* of Louisville, and 40 from Greensborough. It stands on the *w.* side of Kettle Creek, a *n.* branch of Little River, which empties into Savannah River from the *e.* about 36 miles *e.* of the town. It is regularly laid out, and contained, in 1788, 34 houses, a court-house, gaol, and academy. The funds of the academy amount to about £.800 sterling, and the number of students to between 60 and 70. On the *e.* side of the town, 1½ miles distant, is a medicinal spring, which rises from a hollow tree four or five feet in length. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of matter an inch thick, and the leaves around the spring are incrusted with a substance as white as snow. It is said to be a sovereign remedy for the scurvy, scrophulous disorders, consumptions, gout, and every other disorder arising from humours in the blood. This spring being situate in a fine healthy part of the state, will, no doubt, be a pleasant and salutary place of resort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy parts of Georgia, and the neighbouring states.]

[WASHINGTON, City, in the territory of Columbia, was ceded by the State of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and by them established as the seat of their government, after the year 1800. This city stands at the junction of the river Patowmack, and the Eastern Branch, latitude 38° 53′ *n.* extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory, exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity and beauty, by none in America. For although the land in general appears level, yet by gentle and gradual swellings, a variety of elegant prospects are produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off the water occasioned by rain.—Within the limits of this city are a great number of excellent springs; and by digging wells, water of the best quality may readily be had. Besides, the never failing streams that now run through that territory, may also be collected for the use of the city. The waters of Reedy Branch, and of Tiber Creek, may be conveyed to the President's house. The source of Tiber Creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide in said creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the capitol stands, is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber Creek. The water of Tiber Creek may therefore be conveyed to the capitol, and after watering that part of the city, may be destined to other useful purposes. The Eastern Branch is one of the safest and most commodious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships, for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patowmack, although only navigable for small craft, for a considerable distance from its banks next the city, excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers, will nevertheless afford

a capacious summer harbour; as an immense number of ships may ride in the great channel, opposite to, and below the city.

The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post-road, equi-distant from the *n.* and *s.* extremities of the union, and nearly so from the Atlantic and Pittsburg, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resource of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government; and it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity commensurate with its advantages. The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world, combining in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions of the different public edifices, and for the several squares and areas of different shapes as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects, and from their situation, susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The capitol is situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The President's house stands on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water prospect, together with a commanding view of the capitol, and the most material parts of the city. Lines, or avenues of direct communication, have been devised to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues, or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience, and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and *s.* lines, intersected by others running due *e.* and *w.* make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c. and those lines have been so combined, as to meet at certain given points, with the divergent avenues, so as to form, on the spaces first determined, the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide. In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a true meridional line by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the capitol. This line he crossed by another, running due *e.* and *w.* which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

Washington, or the Federal City, is separated from Georgetown in Montgomery County, Maryland, on the *w.* by Rock Creek, but that town is now within the territory of Columbia. It is 42 miles *s. w.* by *s.* of Baltimore, 876 from Passamaquoddy, in the district of Maine, 500 from Boston, 248 from New York, 144 from Philadelphia, 133 from Richmond in Virginia, 232 from Halifax in N. Carolina, 630 from Charleston in S. Carolina, and 794 from Savannah in Georgia. The above distances are English miles, and include the windings of the roads.

The population of the territorial government of Columbia, in which this federal city is situate, amounted by the census of 1810, to 24,023 souls.]

[Washington College, in Maryland. See Chestertown.]

[Washington Fort, in the territory *n. w.* of the Ohio, is situate on the *n.* bank of the river Ohio, *w.* of Little Miami River, and 37 miles *n. w.* of Washington in Kentucky. See Cincinnati.]

[Washington, Mount, a small township of Massachusetts, Berkshire County, in the *s. w.* corner of the State. It was incorporated in 1779, and contained in 1790, 201 inhabitants.]

[Washington, Mount, one of the White Mountains of New Hampshire, which makes so majestic an appearance all along the shore of the *e.* counties of Massachusetts. See White Mountains.]

[Washington's Islands, on the *n. w.* coast of N. America. The largest is of a triangular shape, the point ending on the *s.* at Cape St. James's, in lat. 51° 58′ *n.* Sandy Point, at its *n. e.* extremity, is in lat. 54° 22′ *n.* Its longitude 226° 37′ *w.* extends from Hope Point, the *n. w.* extremity, to Sandy Point, in 228° 45′ *w.* Port Ingraham, Perkins, and Magee Sound, lie on the *w.* side of the island; on the *e.* side are the following ports from *n.* to *s.* Skeetkiss or Skitkiss Harbour, Port Cummashawa, Kleiws Point, Smoke Port, Kanskeeno Point, Port Geyers, Port Ueah, and Port Sturgis. Captain Cook, when he passed this island, supposed it

to be a part of the continent, as the weather at the time was thick, and the wind boisterous, which obliged him to keep out at sea, till he made the *w.* cape of the continent in about lat. 55° *n.* Captain Dixon discovered these islands in 1787, and named them Queen Charlotte's Islands. Captain Gray discovered them in 1789, and called them Washington's Islands. There are three principal islands, besides many small ones. It is conjectured that they make a part of the archipelago of St. Lazarus.]

[WASHITA, a river of N. America, which rises in about lat. 30° *n.* and with the Bayan Tenza forms the Black River.—For an accurate account of which, see Vol. III. page 251, of this Dictionary.]

[WASHQUARTER, or WEIGHQUETA, in Upper Canada, N. America, afterwards called Lake Geneva, and now Burlington Bay, by proclamation, July 16, 1792, is a very beautiful small lake, lying within the head of Lake Ontario, from which it is divided by a long beach; over the outlet has been erected a good bridge; and on the *s.* part of the beach, near the portage, is a good inn, erected by his Excellency Major-general Simcoe.]

[WASKEMASHIN, an island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, on the coast of Labrador. Lat. 50° 3′ *n.* Long. 59° 55′ *w.*]

[WASSAW ISLAND. See WARSAW.]

[WATAGUAKI ISLES, on the coast of Labrador, and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, lies near the shore, *n. e.* of Ouapitougan Isle, and *s. w.* of Little Mecatina, about 10 or 12 leagues from each.]

[WATAUGA, a river of Tennesse, which rises in Burke County, N. Carolina, and falls into Holstein River, 15 miles above Long Island.]

[WATCH POINT, lies to the *n. e.* of Fisher's Island, in Long Island Sound, and *w. s. w.* 14 miles from Block Island.]

[WATEHOO, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean; a beautiful spot, about six miles long and four broad. Lat. 20° 1′ *n.* Long. 158° 15′ *w.*]

[WATERBOROUGH, a township of the district of Maine, York County, on Mousom River, 15 miles *n. w.* of Wells, and 75 from Boston. It was incorporated in 1787, and contained in 1790, 965 inhabitants.]

[WATERBURY, a township of Vermont, in Chittenden County, separated from Duxbury on the *s. w.* by Onion River. It contained in 1790, 93 inhabitants.]

[WATERBURY, the *n.* westernmost township of New Haven County, Connecticut, called by the Indians, Matteluck. It was settled in 1761, and is divided into the parishes of Northbury, Salem, and South Britain.]

[WATEREE, a branch of Santee River, S. Carolina,]

[WATERFORD, a plantation in Cumberland County, district of Maine, *s. e.* of Orangetown, or Greenland.]

[WATERFORD, a new township in York County, district of Maine, incorporated February, 1797, formerly a part of Waterborough.]

[WATERFORD, a township of New Jersey, in Gloucester County.]

[WATERFORD, a neat village of New York, in the township of HALF MOON; which see.]

WATER FRESH. See AQUABUENA.

WATEREE, a settlement of the province and colony of S. Carolina, where the English have a fort and establishment, on the shore of the river of this name.

WATERY, a settlement of the province and colony of S. Carolina, in the territory of the Catabaw Indians, where the English have a fort and establishment. It is situate on the shore, and at the source of the river of its name.

WATERY. This river runs *s. e.* and enters the Congari.

[WATERLAND, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean, so named by Le Maire. Lat. 14° 46′ *s.* Long. 144° 10′ *w.*]

[WATERQUECHIE, or QUECHY, a small river of Vermont, which empties into Connecticut River in Hartland.]

[WATERTOWN, a very pleasant town in Middlesex County, Massachusetts; seven miles *w. n. w.* of Boston. Charles River is navigable for boats to this town, seven miles from its mouth in Boston Harbour. The township contained in 1790, 1091 inhabitants, and was incorporated in 1630. The Rev. Mr. Elliot relates, that in the year 1670, a strange phenomenon appeared in a great pond at Watertown, where the fish all died; and as many as could, thrust themselves on shore, and there died. It was estimated that not less than 20 cart loads lay dead at once round the pond. An eel was found alive in the sandy border of the pond, and upon being cast again into its natural element, it wriggled out again as fast as it could, and died on the shore. The cattle, accustomed to the water, refused to drink it for three days, after which they drank as usual. When the fish began to come on shore, before they died, many were taken both by English and Indians, and eaten without any injury.]

[WATERTOWN, a township in Litchfield County,

Connecticut. It is about 26 miles *n. n. w.* of New Haven.]

[WATER VLIET, an extensive township of New York, Albany County, on the *w.* side of Hudson's River, and includes the village of Hamilton, and the islands in the river nearest the *w.* side. It is bounded *w.* by the manor of Rensselaerwych, and contained, in 1790, 7419 inhabitants, including 707 slaves. In 1796, there were 600 of the inhabitants qualified electors.]

WATING, a small island of the N. Sea, one of the Lucayas, to the *w.* of Long Island.

WATINO, Point of, on the coast of the province and colony of Maryland in the United States, within the Bay of Chesapeak.

WATKINS, a settlement of the Island of Barbadoes; situate on the *s.* coast, and in the jurisdiction of the city of Bridgetown.

[WATLINGS Island, one of the Bahama Islands, situate in the Atlantic Ocean, about 18 leagues *n.* by *w.* from Bird Rock, the *n. w.* point of Crooked Island. By an enumeration in 1803, the number of whites amounted to 13, and of blacks to 126: and the number of acres of patented estates, granted by the crown for the purposes of cultivation, to 10,975 acres. The *s.* point is in lat. 24° *n.* and long. 74° *w.*]

WATOGA, a settlement of the province and colony of N. Carolina; situate on the shore and at the source of the river Tenessee.

WATOGO, a settlement of Indians of the same province and colony as the former, on the shore of the river Cherakees, and at the mouth of the river of its name.

Watogo. This river is small, runs nearly *w.* and enters the Cherakees.

[WATSON, Fort, in S. Carolina, was situate on the *n. e.* bank of Santee River, about half way between the mouth of the Congaree and Nelson's Fort, on the bend of the river opposite the Eutaw Springs. Its garrison of 114 men being besieged by General Greene, surrendered in April, 1781. He then marched with his main force against Camden, higher up the river.]

[WAUKEAGUE, a village in the township of Sullivan, in the district of Maine, nine miles from Desert Island.]

[WAVENEY, a river in the county of Norfolk, Upper Canada, rises in the township of Townsend, and running thence *s.* through the townships of Woodhouse and Walpole, discharges itself into Lake Erie, where it has about three feet water over the bar, and is a good harbour for batteaux.]

[WAWASINK, a village in New York, on Rondout Kill, a branch of Wall Kill, seven miles *w.* of New Paltz, and 12 *s. w.* of Esopus.]

[WAWIACHTANOS, and Twichtwees, two Indian tribes, residing chiefly between Sciota and Wabash Rivers.]

WAYBARI, a small river of the province of Guayana, in the part possessed by the Dutch. It enters the sea above the mouth of the river Berbice.

[WAYNE, a new county in the N. W. Territory, laid out in the fall of 1796, including the settlements of Detroit and Michillimakkinack.]

[Wayne, a county of Newbern District, N. Carolina; bounded *n.* by Edgcome, and *s.* by Glasgow. It contained in 1790, 6133 inhabitants, inclusive of 1557 slaves.]

[Wayne, a township of Pennsylvania, situate in Mifflin County.]

[Wayne, Fort, in the N. W. Territory, is situate at the head of the Miami of the Lake, near the Old Miami villages, at the confluence of St. Joseph's and St. James's Rivers. It is a square fort, with bastions at each angle, with a ditch and parapet, and could contain 500 men, but has only 300, with 16 pieces of cannon. It is 62 miles *n.* by *e.* of Fort Recovery, and 127 *w.* by *s.* of Detroit. The Indians ceded to the United States a tract of land six miles square, where this fort stands, at the late treaty of peace at Greenville.]

[WAYNESBOROUGH, a post-town of N. Carolina, 19 miles from Kingston, and 36 *s. e.* from Raleigh.]

[Waynesborough, a post-town in Burke County, Georgia, 24 miles *s. w.* of Augusta, 30 *e.* by *n.* of Louisville. No river of consequence passes near this town; yet being the place where both the superior and inferior courts are held, it is in a prosperous condition.]

WEALE, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the district of the parish of Santiago; situate on the *w.* coast.

[WEARE, a township of New Hampshire, situate in Hillsborough County, 18 miles *s. w.* of Concord, 60 *w.* of Portsmouth, and 70 *n. w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1764, and contained in 1790, 1924 inhabitants.]

WEATHER-FAIR. See Buen Tiempo.

[WEATHERSFIELD, a township of Vermont, Windsor County, on the *w.* side of Connecticut River, between Windsor on the *n.* and Springfield on the *s.* Ascutney Mountain lies partly in this township, and in that of Windsor. It is a flourishing town, and contained in 1790, 1097 inhabitants.]

[WEATHERSFIELD, a post-town of Connecticut, pleasantly situate in Hartford County, on the *w.* side of Connecticut River, four miles *s.* of Hartford, 11 *n.* of Middleton, 32 *n.* by *e.* of New Haven, and 165 *n. e.* of Philadelphia. This town was settled in 1635 or 1636, by emigrants from Dorchester in Massachusetts, and has a fertile and luxuriant soil. It consists of between 200 and 300 houses, and has a very elegant brick meeting-house for Congregationalists. The inhabitants are generally wealthy farmers; and besides the common productions of the country, raise great quantites of onions, which are exported to different parts of the United States, and to the W. Indies.]

[WEATHERFORD'S PLACE, CHARLES, an Indian house and plantation of that name, on the *e.* side of Alabamba River, above M'Gillivray's sister's place, and a good way below the junction of Tallapoosee and Coosa rivers.]

[WEAUCTENEAU TOWNS, Indian villages on Wabash River, destroyed by Generals Scott and Wilkinson in 1791.]

[WEAUS, or WEEAS, an Indian tribe, whose towns lie on the head waters of Wabash River. At the treaty of Greenville they ceded a tract of land, six miles square, to the United States.]

[WEAVER'S LAKE, in the State of New York, is three miles *n. w.* of Lake Otsego. It is two miles long and 1½ broad.]

WEBASAW, a settlement of the province and *captainship* of Rio Grande in Brazil; situate near the coast, on the shore of the river Amargoso.

[WEBHAMET RIVER, in the district of Maine, is the principal entrance by water to the town of Wells, in York County. It has a barred harbour.]

WECAUNSEE, a small river of the province and colony of Virgina, which runs *e.* and enters the Nansemond.

[WECHQUETANK, a Moravian settlement made by the United Brethren in Pennsylvania, behind the Blue Mountains. In 1760, the Bethlehem congregation purchased 1400 acres of land for the Christian Indians. In 1763, it was destroyed by white savages, who inhabited near Lancaster; they likewise murdered many of the peaceable Indians settled here. It was finally destroyed by the Americans during the late war. It lies about 30 miles *n. w.* by *w.* of Bethlehem.]

[WEISENBERO, a township of Pennsylvania, in Northampton County.]

[WELCH MOUNTAINS, are situate in Chester County, Pennsylvania. Besides other streams, Brandywine Creek rises here.]

WELCH-TRACT, a territory thus called, in the county of Newcastle and province of Pennsylvania in the United States of America; containing nearly 40,000 acres of plantation land. It has some, although inconsiderable towns, such as West Haverford, and Merioneth, and others. It is well peopled with industrious inhabitants, who have cultivated great part of it; and thus does it produce wheat in abundance, having a stock of cattle wherein it trades, and plantations the most flourishing of any in the province.

[WELCOME, SIR THOMAS ROES, or NE ULTRA, a bay or strait in that part of Hudson's Bay which runs up to the *n.* round from Cape Southampton, opening between lat. 62° and 63° *n.* On the *w.* or *n.* shore is a fair head land, called The Hope, by Captain Middleton, in lat. 66° 30′ *n.*]

[WELLFLEET, a township of Massachusetts, in Barnstable County; situate on the peninsula called Cape Cod; *s. e.* from Boston, distant by land 105 miles, by water 56, and from Plymouth light-house eight leagues. The harbour is large, indented within with creeks, where vessels of 70 or 80 tons may lie safe in what is called the Deep Hole. The land is barren, and its timber is small pitch-pine and oak. Before it was incorporated in 1763, it was called the North Precinct of Eastham, and was originally included in the Indian Skeekeet and Pamet. In 1790, it contained 1,117 inhabitants. Since the memory of people now living, there have been in this small town 30 pair of twins, besides two births that produced three each. The method of killing gulls in the gull-house, is no doubt an Indian invention, and also that of killing birds and fowl upon the beach in dark nights. The gull-house is built with crotchets fixed in the ground on the beach, and covered with poles, the sides being covered with stakes and sea-weed, and the poles on the top covered with lean whale. The man being placed within, is not discovered by the fowls, and while they are contending for and eating the fish, he draws them in one by one between the poles, until he has collected 40 or 50. This number has often been taken in a morning. The method of killing small birds and fowl that perch on the beach, is by making a light; the present mode is with hog's lard in a frying-pan; but the Indians are supposed to have used a pine torch. Birds, in a dark night, will flock to the light, and may be killed with a walking-cane. It must be curious to a countryman who lives at a distance from the sea, to be acquainted with the method of killing black fish. Their

size is from four to five tons weight, when full grown. When they come within the harbours, boats surround them, and they are as easily driven on shore as cattle or sheep are driven on the land. The tide leaves them, and they are as easily killed. They are a fish of the whale kind, and will average a barrel of oil each: 400 have been seen at one time on the shore. Of late years these fish rarely come into the harbours.]

[WELLS, a small but rapid river of Vermont, which, after a short *s. e.* course empties into Connecticut River, below The Narrows, and in the *n. e.* corner of Newbury. Its mouth is 40 yards wide.]

[WELLS, a township of Vermont, Rutland County, between Pawlet and Poultney, and contained in 1790, 622 inhabitants. Lake St. Austin lies in this township, and is three miles long, and one broad.]

[WELLS, a post-town of the district of Maine, in York County; situate on the bay of its name, about half way between Biddeford and York, and 88 miles *n.* by *e.* of Boston, and 441 from Philadelphia. This township is about 10 miles long, and seven broad, was incorporated in 1653, and contained in 1790, 3,070 inhabitants. It is bounded *s. e.* by that part of the sea called Wells Bay, and *n. e.* by Kennebunk River, which separates it from Arundel. The small river Negunket, perhaps formerly Oguntiquit, has no navigation, nor mills of any value, but noticed, about 170 years ago as the boundary between York and Wells. The tide through Piscataqua Bay urges itself into the marshes at Wells, a few miles *e.* of Negunket, and forms a harbour for small vessels. Further *e.* in this township, the small river Mousum is found coming from ponds of that name about 20 miles from the sea. Several mills are upon the river, and the inhabitants are opening a harbour by means of a canal.—Webhamet River is the principal entrance to this town by water.]

[WELLS Bay, in the township above mentioned, lies between Cape Porpoise and Neddock. The course from the latter to Wells Bar, is *n.* by *e.* four leagues.]

[WELLS Falls, in Delaware River, lie 13 miles *n. w.* of Trenton in New Jersey.]

[WENDELL, a township in Massachusetts, in Hampshire County, 80 miles *n. w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1781, and contained in 1790, 519 inhabitants.]

[WENDELL, a township of New Hampshire, Cheshire County, about 15 miles *n. e.* of Charlestown, containing 267 inhabitants. It was called Saville, before its incorporation in 1781.]

[WENHAM, a township of Massachusetts, Essex County, between Ipswich and Beverley, 26 miles *n. e.* by *n.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1643, and contained in 1790, 502 inhabitants. Here is a large pond, well stored with fish, from which, and its vicinity to Salem, it was, with whimsical piety, called Enon, by the first settlers.]

[WENITAGONK, a river of Upper Canada, which runs into Lake Ontario, in the *w.* part of the township of Clarke.]

[WENMAN, one of the Gallipago Islands, on the coast of Peru; situate *w.* of Cape Francisco.]

WENSMINSTER, an island of the Strait of Magellan; situate at that entrance leading into the S. Sea, and close to the coast of this rhumb.

[WENTWORTH, a township of New Hampshire, Grafton County, containing in 1790, 241 inhabitants. It was incorporated in 1766, and is *s. e.* of Oxford, adjoining.]

WESE, a small island of the N. Sea, near the coast of Florida, one of the Georgian; between the island of Jekil and the bay of San Agustin.

[WESEL, a village of New Jersey, Essex County, on Pasaic River, two miles *n. w.* of Acquakenunk, and five *w.* of Hakkensack.]

[WEST, or WANTASTIQUEK, a river of Vermont, has its main source in Bromley, about three miles *s. e.* from the head of Otter Creek. After receiving seven or eight smaller streams, and running about 37 miles, it falls into Connecticut River at Brattleborough. It is the largest of the streams on the *e.* side of the Green Mountains; and at its mouth is about 15 rods wide, and 10 or 12 feet deep. A number of figures, or inscriptions, are yet to be seen upon the rocks at the mouth of this river, seeming to allude to the affairs of war among the Indians; but their rudeness and awkwardness denote that the formers of them were at a great remove from the knowledge of any alphabet.]

[WEST BAY, Great, in Upper Canada, comprehends all that part of the Bay of Quinté, from John's Island, upwards, to the head of the bay.]

[WEST BAY, another, lying in the *s. w.* extremity of Lake Superior, Upper Canada, within the isles Royale and Philipeaux.]

[WEST BAY, a large bay of Lake Superior, at its westernmost extremity, having the 12 isles at its mouth. It receives St. Louis River from the *w.*]

[West Bethlehem, a township of Washington County, Pennsylvania.]

West River Mountain, in New Hampshire, in the township of Chesterfield, lies opposite to the mouth of West River; and from this part of Connecticut River to Piscataqua Harbour on the *e.* is 82 miles, the broadest part of the State.—Here are visible appearances of volcanic eruptions. About the year 1730, the garrison of Fort Dummer, four miles distant, was alarmed with frequent explosions of fire and smoke, emitted by the mountain. Similar appearances have been observed since.]

[WESTBOROUGH, a township of Massachusetts, Worcester County, 33 miles *w. s. w.* of Boston, and eight *e.* of Worcester, was incorporated in 1717. Among other singular occurrences in the Indian wars, the strange fortune of Silas and Timothy Rice is worthy of notice. They were sons of Mr. Edmond Rice, one of the first settlers in this town, and carried off by the Indians on August 8, 1704, the one nine the other seven years of age. They lost their mother tongue, had Indian wives, and children by them, and lived at Cagnawaga. Silas was named Tookanowras, and Timothy, Oughtsorongoughton.—Timothy recommended himself so much to the Indians by his penetration, courage, strength, and warlike spirit, that he arrived to be the third of the six chiefs of the Cagnawagas. In 1740 he came down to see his friends. He viewed the house where Mr. Rice dwelt, and the place from whence he with the other children were captured, of both which he retained a clear remembrance; as he did likewise of several elderly persons who were then living, though he had forgot the English language. He returned to Canada, and, it is said, he was the Chief who made the speech to General Gage in behalf of the Cagnawagas, after the reduction of Montreal. These men were alive in 1790.]

[West Camp, a thriving village of New York, containing about 60 houses, in Columbia County on the *e.* side of Hudson's River, seven miles above Red Hook, and 13 *n.* of New York City.]

[West-Chester, a county of New York; bounded *n* by Duchess County, *s.* by Long Island Sound, *w.* by Hudson's River, and *e.* by the State of Connecticut. It includes Captain's Islands, and all the islands in the sound to the *e.* of Frogs Neck, and to the *n.* of the main channel. In 1790, it contained 24,003 inhabitants, including 1,419 slaves. In 1796, there were, in its 21 townships, 3,243 of the inhabitants qualified electors.]

[West-Chester, the chief township of the above county; lying partly on the Sound, about 14 miles *n. e.* of New York City. It was much impoverished in the late war, and contained, in 1790, 1,203 inhabitants; of whom 164 were electors, and 242 slaves.]

[West-Chester, the chief town of Chester County, Pennsylvania; containing about 50 houses, a court-house, stone gaol, and a Roman Catholic church. It is about 23 miles *w.* of Philadelphia.]

[WESTERLY, a post-town on the sea-coast of Washington County, Rhode Island, and separated from Stonington, in Connecticut, by Paucatuck River, 27 miles *w.* by *s.* of Newport. The inhabitants carry on a brisk coasting trade, and are extensively engaged in the fisheries. The township contained, in 1790, 2,298 inhabitants, of whom 10 were slaves.]

[WESTERN DISTRICT, the, in Upper Canada, was originally constituted and erected into a district by the name of the District of Hesse, in the province of Quebec, by his Excellency Lord Dorchester's proclamation, of the 24th July, 1788. It received its present name by an act of the provincial legislature; and by its present limits is bounded *s.* by Lake Erie; *e.* by the London District, on the *w.* by Detroit, Lake St. Clair, and river St. Clair, and on the *n.* by the Lake Huron.]

[Western, a township of Massachusetts; situate in the *s. w.* corner of Worcester County, 18 miles *e.* by *n.* of Springfield, 23 *w.* by *s.* from Worcester, and 58 *s. w.* by *s.* of Boston.]

[Western, Fort, in the district of Maine, was erected in 1752, on the *e.* bank of the small fall which terminates the navigation of Kennebeck River. It is 18 miles from Taconnet Fall. See Kennebeck River. It is in the township of Harwington, Lincoln County. A company was incorporated in February, 1796, to build a bridge over the river at this place.]

[Western Precinct, in Somerset County, New Jersey, contained, in 1790, 1,875 inhabitants, including 317 slaves.]

[Western Territory, the same as Territory, *n. w.* of the Ohio, which see. With respect to the litigated claims upon this territory, the following document will give a concise and clear view.]

['*A summary Statement of the claims of Georgia, and of the United States, to the Georgia Western Territory; and of the arguments, adduced by the purchasers of a part of this territory, to invali-*

[*date these claims; particularly to such parts as are covered by their purchases; collected and stated with impartiality from various authentic printed manuscript documents.*

'I. The State of Georgia say, that "the unappropriated territory," usually considered as within the limits of the State of Georgia, or the tract of country now distinguished by the name of the Georgia Western Territory, is their property, and that they have "not only the right of pre-emption, but also of exercising all territorial rights." 1. Because, by the 2d and 9th articles of the confederation of 1781, the territory within the limits of each of the United States is confirmed and guaranteed to each of them respectively. 2. Because the boundaries of Georgia, as established by the treaty of Paris, of 1783, and by the convention of Beaufort of 1787, include this territory; and the 6th article of the Federal Constitution, by the spirit and meaning of it, confirms these limits; and, 3dly, Because the United States, by accepting a cession from N. Carolina of her *w.* territory. To this claim of Georgia the purchasers accede; upon this ground the sales were made to the respective companies in 1795, and on this ground the purchasers rested the validity of their claim.'

'But the State of Georgia now reclaims that part of her *w.* territory sold according to the act of her legislature, of January 7, 1795, alleging that the act authorising the sale, is contrary to the 4th article of the constitution of the United States; repugnant to the 16th and 17th sections in the 1st article of the constitution of Georgia, and was moreover obtained by means of "fraud, atrocious speculation, corruption, and collusion." Hence, by an act passed February 13, 1796, the above act of January 7, 1795, was "declared null and void, and the grants, rights, and claims, deduced from it, annulled, and rendered void, and of no effect."

'In answer to the above-stated claim of Georgia, it is contended by the purchasers, 1. That the repealing law of Georgia is merely void, and leaves the title of the purchasers where it found it. If corruption, they say, did exist in the legislature which made the sale (which is however strenuously denied), it is very questionable whether it can ever be alleged, as a contract cannot be repealed, like other acts of legislation; and as the supreme power of a State, as such, cannot be accountable to any other constituted authority; for that implies a superior tribunal. By this, however, is not meant that the wrong done cannot be individually prosecuted for corruption, though the State may be bound by the sales. If the allegation were, say they, that the legislature were deceived by the purchasers, the grant, like that of an individual, unfairly obtained, would be void on proof of the fraud: but for a legislature to allege its own criminality and corruption, to avoid its own grant, is truly novel; and, in point of principle, there is no difference between the same and a preceding legislature. But if corruption of this kind can make void the grant, at least it ought to be proved; and that too in a court competent to weigh the evidence, and decide on the fact: in other words, it is a judiciary question, triable only in a judiciary court, and being a question of fact, must be tried by a jury. The legislature, therefore, having no authority in this case, this examination and decision can be considered no otherwise than as mere usurpation, and void. And perhaps in justice to the purchasers, it ought to be added, that the depositions taken by the committee of the legislature (though taken *ex parte*, and under a strong bias of party) do not contain much clear evidence of fraud.'

'It is also said by the purchasers that even if there had been fraud, and that fraud might be alleged to destroy the title of the original purchasers who were privy to it; yet that innocent persons having purchased, utterly unacquainted with the facts, and living in remote parts of the United States, their title could never be controverted; that it was enough for them to know that a legislative act, granting the lands, had passed; and that they were ignorant of any fraudulent practices.'

'With regard to the allegation in the repealing act of Georgia, that sales were against the constitution of the United States, and that of Georgia, it does not appear to have been treated as having any foundation; it has been called a naked assertion without any reasoning to support it. It has been said that every State in the Union, having unappropriated lands, has disposed of them through the medium of legislative acts, and their validity has never been questioned; though there is no peculiar difference in this respect between the constitution of Georgia and those of the other States. In short, it seems to be generally agreed among the informed part of the community, that, whether Georgia had cause of complaint on account of unfairness in the sales, or not, the repealing law must be considered as a "contravention of the first principles of natural justice and policy," and void.

'II. The claim of the United States deserves]

[more particular attention. Various grounds have been taken to support this. It has been intimated, rather than asserted, in a Report of the Committee of the Senate of the United States, that by the proclamation of the British King, of October 7, 1763, all lands lying *w.* of the heads of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, were taken from the colonies, and so remained with American Independence, and then became the property of the aggregate body politic of the United States, as they were not within the limits of any particular States.'

'This, it is said by the purchasers, is bold ground, and is opposed not only to all the measures and opinions in Britain and America, while we were colonies, but also to the whole course of arrangements since our independence. It proves too much to prove any thing. The argument destroys itself; for if this be true, all the lands ceded to the United States by Carolina, Virginia, and every other State ceding *w.* lands, belonged to the United States without cession. Some of the best counties of Virginia now belong to them; the Connecticut Reserved Land, is theirs; the whole States of Kentucky and Tennessee are theirs: the consequences, say they, are too wild to suffer the principle to be admitted. Nor do the words of the proclamation warrant the construction. The governors of the colonies are thereby only forbidden, "for the present, and until the King's further pleasure should be known, to grant warrants of survey, or pass patents for those lands." And the reason is given by the proclamation; viz. that the several tribes of Indians living under the king's protection, "should not be molested or disturbed in the possession of their hunting grounds." Instead of a permanent alteration of the boundaries of the colonies, a temporary prohibition to the governors to grant those western lands, is alone to be found in the proclamation; and the object, viz. peace with and justice towards the Indians, required no more. And another fact seems to put this matter past all doubt; the boundaries of the colonies, as expressed in the commissions of the several governors, were uniformly the same after the proclamation as before.'

'Others, in support of the claim of the United States, have said, that the original charter of Georgia did not include the lands lying *s.* of a line projected due *w.* from the head of the most *s.* stream of the Alatamaha River: that this stream is the Oakmulgee River, and that its most *s.* head is probably about lat. 33° 30′ *n.* It is further said, that no act of the British government ever enlarged the colony beyond its original chartered limits, except the proclamation of 7th October, 1763; and that this annexes the lands between Alatamaha and St. Mary, no further *w.* than their heads; therefore it is concluded that the whole *w.* country claimed by Georgia, except so much thereof as lies *n.* of a due *w.* line from the head of the Oakmulgee, never was within the colony of Georgia.'

'To this it is answered, by the advocates for the title of Georgia, that the charter of Carolina, granted in 1662, extended that country as far *s.* as lat. 31° *n.* and as far *w.* as the Western Ocean. That after the division of Carolina into two colonies, S. Carolina had the same *s.* and *w.* limits. That the surrender of the charter by the proprietors of Carolina, only restored the property to the crown, but did not annihilate the colony, which is evident from a royal governor being immediately appointed, who, by his commission, is made "governor of our colony of S. Carolina," without any specific boundaries; which meant a tract of country bounded as under the proprietary government, or it meant nothing. That on the 9th of June, 1732, the colony of Georgia was carved out of S. Carolina; but all lands belonging to S. Carolina shall continue to belong there, except that which was contained in the charter of Georgia; and of course the land lying *s.* of the *s.* line of Georgia, as far as lat. 31° still belonged to S. Carolina, which is evident from common sense, as well as from the fact that the governor of S. Carolina made grants of lands *s.* of the colony of Georgia in 1763; which, though highly offensive to the Board of Trade, were at length admitted to be legitimate. It is further said, that the State of S. Carolina, in 1788, by solemn legislative act, ceded to Georgia all her right to the lands in question, by ratifying the articles of the Convention of Beaufort, agreed upon between the States of S. Carolina and Georgia; and that the lands became thereby unquestionably the property of Georgia.'

'Other answers have been made to this ground of claim by the United States, such as that the true intent and meaning of the proclamation of 1763, was to annex the land in question to Georgia, and that this was considered as the fact by the British government; and if the communication from Mr. George Chalmers, the certifying officer of the Board of Trade, to the Attorney General of the United States, is to be relied on as an authority, this is true. It has also been answered, that the Oakmulgee is not the]

[most *s.* stream of the Alatamaha, but Phenhalloway's Creek, which heads in lat. 31° *n.*; so that the whole of this land was strictly within the original chartered limits of Georgia.'

'Other advocates for the claim of the United States, have said, that at least this claim is good from lat. 31′ as far *n.* as a line projected due *e.* from the confluence of the Mississippi and Yazoo Rivers.'

'The foundation of this assertion is this. The Board of Trade, in 1764, represented to the king, that it was expedient to extend West Florida as far northward as the above-mentioned line, and advised that a proclamation might issue for that purpose. No such proclamation, however, was made; but several subsequent commissions to the governors of West Florida, bounded the colony of West Florida, *n.* by that line; and in this state the matter rested until the independence of the United States. Hence it is argued that this land, being a part of West Florida in 1783, when the bounds of the United States were settled by treaty with Great Britain, could not belong to Georgia; but being within no particular State, it became the property of the United States.'

'To this the purchasers have answered, that the proclamation of 7th October, 1763, was a solemn public act, and established the *s.* boundary of West Florida at lat. 31′, and that the commission of a governor, being inferior in solemnity and publicity, could not abrogate it. That the reason why no proclamation was made probably was, that the supposed fact on which the expediency of the alteration was predicated, was not known to exist; and that in the commissions themselves are words leading to a belief that it was considered only as a temporary arrangement. The fact is, say they, that this matter was wholly founded on a gross misrepresentation of the governor of Florida, who represented to the Board of Trade, and they to the King, that in lat. 31′ was *s.* of the town of Mobille. It is nearly certain that the British government did not consider this as a permanent alteration on the *n.* boundary of West Florida; for no reason can be given why, in the peace of 1783, they should cede to the United States, without any equivalent, so great and valuable a part of West Florida, which had never joined in the Revolution; especially considering that on the same day on which our treaty with Britain bears date, she ceded West Florida, without bounds, to Spain; thus on the same day ceding the same territory to two different nations, if it was then a part of West Florida.'

'Other objections have been urged aganist the claim of the United States, which apply to all the grounds of claim above mentioned. It has been said by the purchasers and their agents, that the most solemn acts of the three nations who have been immediately interested in the question, have, for a long course of years, recognized the title of Georgia, viz. Britain, Spain, and the United States.'

'Britain, as has been mentioned, recognized this title by the peace of 1783. The general principle on which the boundaries of the United States were then established, was, that the former 13 colonies were to be acknowledged as Independent States by Britain; and consequently the bounds of the colonies were to be the bounds of the States. It cannot be pretended, that the land in question was within any other colony than that of Georgia or S. Carolina; and, as has been mentioned, S. Carolina has ceded all her right to Georgia by the Convention of Beaufort, 1787; and it is incredible that Britain should then consider the land as part of West Florida; for then, without motive or reason, she gave to the United States the best part of a colony which had chosen to remain under her allegiance.'

'Spain has recognized the title of Georgia by the late treaty made between her and the United States, for if the land was, in 1783, a part of Florida, Spain had an equal right to it with the United States; Great Britain having ceded it to both nations on the same day. But Spain has given up all claim to the United States without any equivalent. This was done on the explicit representation on the part of government of the United States, first by Messrs. Carmichael and Short, and afterwards by Mr. Pinckney, under express instructions from the Supreme Executive of the United States, to claim the land as a part of Georgia; and these instructions were the result of an elaborate inquiry by Mr. Jefferson, then Secretary of State, as appears by his report to the Executive on the subject. Indeed Spain never claimed the land as a part of West Florida, but set up a claim by conquest. And it has been added, that as the cession of this country from Spain by the late treaty was obtained by a representation from the United States, that it was a part of Georgia, Spain was not in honour bound by this article of the treaty, if the fact was not so, if the land did]

[indeed belong to her own province of West Florida.'

'The government of the United States, it is said, has for a long course of years acquiesced in, and by many public acts acknowledged the title of Georgia, so as to bar all claim, even if the title of the United States were otherwise valid. As a principle to govern in this case it is stated, that in courts of equity it has been established, "that the true owner of land shall be bound by a sale of a stranger who has no title, if the owner suffer the sale to go on by an innocent purchaser, without giving notice of his title when he has it in his power; and that the case is much stronger against the owner when he has given a colour of title to the seller, and thus helped to deceive the purchaser." As facts falling within this principle it has been stated, 1. That the government of the United States instructed their commissioners for making the peace of 1783, to claim this land as belonging to Georgia, and this appears by the Journals of Congress in the fullest manner. 2. That attempts were made by the United States to obtain a cession of this land from Georgia, and a consideration offered for it, without any intimation that the United States had a claim. 3. That the Convention of Beaufort, by which the conflicting claims of S. Carolina and Georgia were amicably settled, was conducted under the auspices of the United States; the question having been submitted to a court appointed by Congress to try it, according to a provision in the former Confederation of the United States. 4. That, in 1789, the government of the United States stated to Spain, as the ground of the claim of the American government, that this territory belonged to Georgia by virtue of her charter and the proclamation of 1763. 5. That in the negociation which preceded the late treaty between the United States and Spain, Messrs. Carmichael and Short, American commissioners, by express instructions from the Supreme Executive of the United States, asserted the same thing as the ground of the claim of the American government; and that even after the existing sales of this territory, and after the same had been officially communicated by the government of Georgia to the President of the United States, and by him laid before Congress, Mr. Pinckney, late envoy to the court of Spain, expressly declared, in his official communication, that the claim of the United States was founded on the fact, that this country was a part of Georgia, and this too pursuant to express instructions from the American Executive.'

'These have been urged as public acts of the American government, giving strong colour or title to Georgia. Others of acquiescence in her title by the United States have been added, such as the silence of the general government, when, in 1783, Georgia passed a legislative act, declaring her title to this country, and taking measures to settle it. Also, when in 1785, Georgia erected part of this territory into a county by the name of Bourbon, and appointed magistrates there, and provided for the further settlement of it; and also, when, in 1789, Georgia passed an act for the sale of the now controverted lands to certain companies, who after failed of complying with the terms of payment.'

'It has been said, by the purchasers and their agents, that it would be indelicate, at least, for the government of the United States to hold such language as this: "It is true, we represented to Great Britain that this land belonged to Georgia, and obtained a cession from her on this ground. It is true, that we claimed it of Spain on the same ground for years together, and at last on that ground obtained a relinquishment of her claim; but we falsified, and they were cheated. It is true, we claimed it in behalf of Georgia; but having obtained it, we will keep it ourselves. It is true, we declared by many public and solemn acts, that the title of Georgia was good, and thereby induced a great number of American citizens to purchase and risk all their property in the enterprise; but we will now assert our claim, and destroy them for being weak enough to believe us; and it is true, it has long been settled that the principles of justice forbid individuals from doing thus: but we are above the rules of justice."

'The foregoing (says an American advocate) is a clear and impartial record of the conflicting claims to the Georgia Western Territory.']

[WESTFIELD, a township of Vermont; Orleans County, *s.* of Jay.]

[WESTFIELD, a pleasant post-town of Massachusetts, Hampshire County, on the river of this name, in a curious vale, eight miles *w.* of Springfield, 26 *e.* by *s.* of Stockbridge, 46 *w.* of Worcester, 80 *w. s. w.* of Boston. It contained, in 1790, a congregational church, an academy, and about 50 or 60 compact houses. The township was incorporated in 1660, and contained, in the above year, 2,204 inhabitants.]

[WESTFIELD, a small river of Massachusetts,]

which rises in Berkshire County, and runs nearly a *s. e.* course through Middlefield, Westfield, and West Springfield, where it empties into the Connecticut, by a mouth about 30 yards wide.]

[WESTFIELD, a township of N. York, Washington County, bounded *s.* by Kingsbury, and *n.* by Whitehall. It contained, in 1790, 2,103 inhabitants, of whom 186 are electors, and nine slaves. It lies near Lake George.]

[WESTFIELD, in Richmond County, N. York, is bounded *n.* by the Fresh Kill, *e.* by Southfield, and *w.* by the Sound. It contained, in 1790, 1,151 inhabitants, of whom 131 were electors, and 276 slaves.]

[WESTFIELD, a small town in Essex County, New Jersey, containing a Presbyterian church, and about 80 compact houses. It is about seven or eight miles *w.* of Elizabeth Town.]

[WEST FLORIDA. See FLORIDA.]

[WESTFORD, a township of Vermont, in Chittendon County, *n. e.* of Colchester, adjoining, and contains 63 inhabitants.]

[WESTFORD, a township of Massachusetts, situate in Middlesex County, 28 miles *n. w.* of Boston, and contained, in 1790, 1,229 inhabitants. In the year 1792, an academy was established here.]

[WEST GREENWICH, a township in Kent County, Rhode Island, containing 2,054 inhabitants, including 10 slaves.]

[WESTHAM, a small town of Virginia, Henrico County, on the *n.* bank of James' River, six miles *n. w.* by *w.* of Richmond. Here Benedict Arnold destroyed one of the finest foundaries for cannon in America, and a large quantity of stores and cannon, in January, 1781.]

[WESTHAMPTON, a township of Massachusetts, Hampshire County, seven miles *w.* of Northampton. It contained, in 1790, 683 inhabitants, and lies on the *w.* side of Connecticut River.]

[WEST HARBOUR, on the *s.* coast of the island of Jamaica, is to the *n.* of Portland Point. There is good anchorage, but exposed to *s.* and *s. e.* winds.]

[WEST HAVEN, a parish of the township of New Haven, in Connecticut, pleasantly situate on the Harbour and Sound, 3 miles *w. s. w.* of the city.]

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Sugar.

TABLES *and Accounts of* IMPORTS *and* EXPORTS *of* OTHER W. INDIA STAPLES.

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N. B. All the above accounts and documents, unless otherwise specified, are from official authority.

CHAP. I.

General Topographical Description.—The West Indies were so named at first, on the presumption that they extended so far as to form a connection with those of the East Indies. The fallacy of this supposition was soon discovered; the name, however, has been retained, to prevent confusion in the geographical accounts of the islands. The Continent was also sometimes called by this name, till its natural division being more attended to, it obtained a distinct appellation. It is worthy of remark, that Columbus sailed on his first voyage the 3d of August, 1492, and that although Bartholemus Dias discovered the Cape of Good Hope, only two years after, in 1494, it was not doubled till the year 1497, when Vasquez de Gama succeeded (for the first time in modern navigation) in this, as it was then supposed, formidable attempt. The W. Indies have thus the priority of discovery. That part only of them is to be called Antilles, as Hoffman supposes, which comprehends the windward or Caribean islands. He says, "*Dicuntur Antillæ Americæ quasi ante insulas Americæ, nempe ante majores insulas Sinûs Mexicani.*" *(Hoffman Lexic. Univ.)* Rochfort and Du Tertre explain the word nearly in the same manner, while Mons. D'Anville applies the name to those islands only, which are more immediately opposed to, or situated against, the Continent: thus he terms Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, the Great Antilles, and the small islands of Aruba, Curaçoa, Bonair, Magarita, and some others near the coast of Caracas on the Southern Peninsula, the Less; excluding the Caribean islands altogether. What is most probable is, that the etymology signifies *ante islas,* quasi *islas ante el Continente,* islands]

[before the Continent: and thus the whole of the islands above mentioned might properly be denominated Antilles.

But, subordinate to this comprehensive and simple arrangement, necessity or convenience has introduced more minute and local distinctions. That portion of the Atlantic, which is separated from the main ocean to the *n.* and to the *e.* by these islands, although commonly known by the general appellation of the Mexican Gulf, is itself properly subdivided into three distinct basins: the Gulf of Mexico, the Bay of Honduras, and the Caribean Sea. The islands have each a channel or passage, of various widths, some of which serve for access to the *s.* side of each, or to communicate with the main: the largest, however, most central, and least dangerous, is that called the Mona Passage, between Puerto Rico and Hispaniola.

The Caribean sea takes its name from that class of islands which bound this part of the ocean to the *e.* Most of these were anciently possessed by a nation of Cannibals, the scourge and terror of the mild and inoffensive natives of Hispaniola, who frequently expressed to Columbus their dread of those fierce and warlike invaders, styling them Caribes. And it was in consequence of this information that the islands to which these savages belonged, when discovered afterwards by Columbus, were by him denominated generally the Caribean Islands.

Of this class, however, a group nearly adjoining to the *e.* side of St. John de Puerto Rico is likewise called the Virgin Isles. The old Spanish navigators, in speaking of the W. Indian Islands in general, frequently distinguish them into two classes, by the terms Barlovento and Sotavento, from whence our Windward and Leeward Islands; the Caribean constituting in strict propriety the former class; and the four large islands of Cuba, Jamaica, Hispaniola, and Puerto Rico, the latter. But our English mariners appropriate both terms to the Caribean Islands only, subdividing them according to their situation in the course of the trade wind; the Windward Islands by their arrangement terminating with Martinique, and the Leeward commencing at Dominica, and extending to Puerto Rico.

Neither must it pass unobserved, that the name of Bahama is commonly applied by the English to that cluster of small islands, rocks, and reefs of sand, which stretch in a *n. w.* direction for the space of near 300 leagues from the *n.* coast of Hispaniola to the Bahama Strait, opposite the Florida shore, and which are called by the Spaniards the Lucayos. The Bermudas lie still more to the *n.*; and, though not generally enumerated amongst the W. India Islands, must at least be looked upon as a valuable entrepôt between them and the British colonies of N. America.

In order more fully to illustrate the above decription, we shall here present our readers with]

[*A Geographical*

[*Climate.*—The climate in all the W. India Islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the *n.*, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30′ to the *s.*, they would be continually subjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner as to enable the inhabitants to attend their concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once. By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him a vast body of clouds, which shield them from his direct beams, and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The temperature of the air varies indeed considerably according to the elevation of the land; but, with this exception, the medium degree of heat is much the same in all the countries of this part of the globe.

A tropical year seems properly to comprehend but two distinct seasons; the wet and the dry; but as the rains in these climates constitute two great periods, we shall describe it, like the European year, under four divisions.

The vernal season, or spring, may be said to commence with the month of May, when the foliage of the trees evidently becomes more vivid, and the parched savannas begin to change their russet hue, even previous to the first periodical rains, which are now daily expected, and generally set in about the middle of the month. These, compared with the autumnal rains, may be said to be gentle showers. They come from the *s.* and commonly fall every day about noon, and break up with thunder storms; creating a bright and beautiful verdure, and a rapid and luxuriant vegetation. The thermometer at this season varies considerably; commonly falling six or eight degrees immediately after the diurnal rains: its medium height may be stated at 75°.

After these rains have continued about a fortnight, the weather becomes dry, settled, and salutary; and the tropical summer reigns in full glory. Not a cloud is to be perceived; and the sky blazes with irresistible fierceness. For some hours, commonly between seven and ten in the morning, before the setting in of the sea breeze or trade wind, which at this season blows from the *s. e.* with great force and regularity until late in the evening, the heat is scarcely supportable; but, no sooner is the influence felt of this refreshing wind, than all nature revives, and the climate, in the shade, becomes not only very tolerable, but pleasant. The thermometer now varies but little in the whole 24 hours: its medium, near the coast, may be stated at about 80°. It is seldom observed higher than 85° at noon, nor much below 75° at sun-rise; a variation but small compared with the climate of some of the *s.* parts of N. America; of Virginia, for instance, where, according to Mr. Jefferson, the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer has been known to descend from 92° to 47° in 13 hours. The W. India Islands are happily exempt from those noxious variations.

The nights at this season are transcendently beautiful. The clearness and brilliancy of the heavens, the serenity of the air, and the soft tranquillity in which nature reposes, contribute to harmonize the mind, and produce the most calm and delightful sensations. The moon too in these climates displays far greater radiance than in Europe. The smallest print is legible by her light, and in the moon's absence her function is not ill supplied by the brightness of the milky way, and by that glorious planet Venus, which appears here like a little moon, and glitters with so refulgent a beam as to cast a shade from trees, buildings, and other objects, making full amends for the short stay and abrupt departure of the crepusculum or twilight.

This state of the weather commonly continues, with little variation, from the beginning of June until the middle of August, when the diurnal breeze begins to intermit, and the atmosphere becomes sultry, incommodious, and suffocating. In the latter end of this month, and most part of September, we look about in vain for coolness and comfort. The thermometer occasionally exceeds 90°, and instead of a steady and refreshing wind from the sea, there are usually faint breezes and calms alternately. These are preludes to the second periodical or autumnal season. Large towering clouds, fleecy and of a reddish hue, are]

[*A Geographical, Historical, and Statistical Table of the* BRITISH *and* FOREIGN WEST INDIA ISLANDS *or* ANTILLES, *and* COLONIES, *or such as are worth Cultivation; as they lie in a Direction from n. to s.; giving the General Designation, Peculiar Name, Length and Breadth, Free Ports, Latitude and Longitude, and Abstract of particular Events relating to each.*

General Designation.	Peculiar Name of each	British Sovereign, Holland, Denmark, Free-imported Isle, Ceded Colony	English Miles: Miles in Length	Miles in Breadth	Chief Towns and Free Ports. F.	Latitude	Longitude	ABSTRACT of particular Events relating to each
	Bermudas	.	19	6	Principal Port. ....F	32 18	64° 33″	Discovered, 1522—colonized, 1612, by English, to whom, with the rest, it belongs.
	Bahamas	New Providence	B.	25	8	Nassau .. F.	25 6	77 20	First land touched at by Columbus, 11th October, 1492—settled by Europeans, 1666—Captain Rogers sent to destroy freebooters, 1718—surrendered to Spaniards, 1781—restored, 1783, to the British, to whom they belong.
		Crooked Island	B.	15	9	Pitt's Town ..F	22 32	73 54	
		Cuba	S.	615	90	Havana .. F.	23 8	82 16	Discovered, 1492, by Columbus—to be at present land by Oberado, 1741—always belonged to Spain, excepting in 1762, when it was taken by Admiral Pocock and Earl of Albemarle—restored by the peace, 1763, in exchange for the Floridas.
		Dominga	F.	310	137	Port o'Prince ..	18 31	72 19	Ditto ..ditto.. ditto nearly depopulated by small-pox, 1666—partly occupied by Buccaneers, who submitted to the French government, and became a most productive and valuable colony in W. Indies—Spanish part very little cultivated—French negroes revolt, 1790—Spanish part ceded to France, 1794—French part surrendered to English, who evacuated it 1798—Restored to French, by treaty of Amiens, 1801—French expelled, 1803, by the Blacks and an English squadron—Spanish part reconquered by Spaniards and English, 1809—French, part still independent, but claimed by France.
						Cape Francois..	19 44	72 14	
						St. Domingo.	18 29	69 49	
		Puerto Rico	S.	95	36	Puerto Rico...	18 27	66 7	Discovered by Columbus, 1493—Capital plundered, by Drake, 1677—Ditto by Duke of Cumberland, 1598 (who took possession, but relinquished)—Ditto by Dutch, 1615—attacked by English, 1741—again, 1797—still retained by Spain.
		Jamaica	B	124	43	Kingston..... ... ..F.	18 0	76 43	Discovered by Columbus, 1494, named by him Santiago, and occupied by Spain—attacked by Admiral Penn and Colonel Venables, 1655—ceded 6th May, 1670, to Great Britain, to whom it belongs.
		Tortola	B.	10	3	Road Harbour.... F.	18 28	64 45	Colonized by Dutch—these expelled by English, 1666—made a free port, 1802—belongs to British.
	Virgin Isles	Santa Cruz	D.	19	6	Santa Cruz	17 44	64 43	First of Antilles visited by Columbus—deserted till settled by English—these expelled by French, 1650—sold, 1651, to Knights of Malta—bought of them by W. India Company, 1665—incorporated with French crown, 1674—sold to Danes—taken, in late war, by British—restored to Denmark by treaty, 1814.
		St. Thomas..	D.	11	3	Port Franco .....F.	18 22	64 57	Belonged first to Danish company—sold to the king, who made it a free-port—factory plundered by Filibusters, 1680—taken by Great Britain in last war—restored by treaty, 1814.
	..	St. Christopher's	B.	19	6	Basseterre	17 17	62 45	Named after Columbus, 1493—settled, 1623, by English and French—these driven out by Spaniards, 1629—resettled by English and French—ceded to former by treaty of Utrecht, 1713—Taken by French, 1782—restored, 1783, to Great Britain, to whom it belongs.
	...	Nevis	B.	7	6	Charlestown.....	17 9	62 40	Settled by English, 1628—taken, by French, 1782—restored, 1783, to Great Britain, to whom it belongs.
		Antigua....	B.	16	11	St. John's... ..... F.	17 8	61 50	Discovered, about 1632, by Sir Thomas Warner—settled by English, 1666—granted by Crown to Mr. Winthrop, 1666—also sent to it a large colony, 1666—same year taken by French—retaken, 1667—belongs to Great Britain.
	1st Subdivision, Leeward Isles *	Montserrat . .	B.	9	5	... ..	16 45	62 17	Discovered by Columbus, 1493—colonized by Irish, 1632—wrecked, 1709, 10 days by French, compromised, agreed by treaty of Utrecht—taken by French, 1781—restored at peace of 1783 to Great Britain.
		Guadaloupe.. .	F.	40	37	Basseterre.....	15 59	61 47	Discovered by Columbus, 1493—retained by Spain till 1635, when it was ceded to France—attacked by English, 1691, 1703, and taken 1759—restored, 1763—again taken by English, 1794—recovered by French in the same year—again taken by English, 1810—ceded to Sweden by treaty of March, 1815, to bring the Crown Prince into the Grand Alliance—restored to France by treaty 30th May, 1814.
		Dominica.. .	B.	27	12	Roseau.....F.	15 16	61 27	So named, as discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, on a Sunday—inhabited by Caribes, who, in 1640, entered with the French into a league against the English—ceded to Great Britain, 1763—taken by French, 1781—restored to Great Britain, 1783, to whom it belongs.
		Martinique ..	F.	50	22	Saint Pierre or Port Royal	14 44	61 7	Settled by French, 1635—possessed by French W. India Company till 1651, when it was sold to Mons. Parquet—it purchased and incorporated with the Crown, 1674—suffered by earthquake 1727—ditto in 1767 and 1772—and in 1780 by a hurricane—attacked by Dutch, 1674—ditto by Admiral Penn, 1693—taken by English, 1762—restored, 1763—again taken, 1794—restored, 1801—again taken, 1809—restored to France, 1814.
	Caribe Isles.	Barbadoes.	B.	13	12	Bridge Town.	13 10	59 36	Discovered by Portuguese—deserted by them—visited by English ship Olive Blossom, 1605—colonized, 1624, under Courteen, 1627, patented to Earl of Pembroke—to Earl of Carlisle, Lord Willoughby, governor, divides revenues with the heir of the Earl of Pembroke—1650, great accession of population from Great Britain—seized to the Crown, 1660—dreadful storm, 1780—always belonged to Great Britain.
		St. Lucia	C. I.	25	10	North End.. .. .	14 5	60 59	Discovered by French—possessed by them and English frequently till 1722—then evacuated with St. Vincent—given by George I to Duke of Montague, who was driven out by French from Martinique—these agreed to evacuate but returned—taken by British, 1762—ceded to France, peace of Versailles, 1783—taken by British, 1778—restored, 1783—taken by British, 1794—restored, 1802—taken, 1803—ceded to Great Britain, 1814.
	Subdivision, Windward Isles.	St. Vincent .	B.	13	10	Kingston ... .F.	13 11	61 16	Discovered by Spaniards—weak attempts of British to possess it, 1723—taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton, 1762—Caribe lands sold by British government—to individuals, 1763, which caused insurrection of natives—this quelled by treaty, 1773, by which lands were assigned them—belongs to Great Britain—suffered by eruption of Volcano, 1812.
		Grenada	B.	17	10	St. George's .... F.	12 4	61 47	Discovered by Columbus, 1498—settled by French, 1650—taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton, 1762—retaken by French in 1780—restored to Great Britain, 1763, to whom it belongs—it suffered greatly by hurricanes, 1780, and an insurrection 1795.
		Tobago	C. I	24	6	Scarborough.. F	11 10	60 44	Settled chiefly by Dutch till 1748, when declared neutral by treaty of Aix la Chapelle—yielded to Great Britain by Peace of 1763, taken by French—ceded to these, 1783—captured by British, 1793—restored to France by treaty of Amiens, 1801—again taken by British, 1803—ceded to Britain, 1814.
		Trinidad . ..	B.	77	55	S. Josef .. .. .. F.	10 27	61 11	Discovered by Columbus, 1498—conquered by Berrio, 1595—Spanish policy, 1763, caused it to be peopled by all nations—taken without resistance, 1797, by Sir Ralph Abercrombie—ceded to Great Britain, 1801—has since belonged to Great Britain.
Salut of LEEW. I.	2d Subdivision. Leeward Isles.	Curaçoa	H.	28	8	Amsterdam .....F.	12 1	69 2	Settled by Emperor Charles V. 1527—taken by Dutch, 1632—from them by English, 1798—restored, 1604—again taken by Captain Brisbane, 1800—restored to Holland, 1814.
CONTINENTAL COLONIES.	Province of Dutch Guayana.	Demerara .. . Essequibo. . Berbice.....	...	...	...	... ...			Unsettled till end of 18th century ..... Taken by Admiral Rodney, 1782—again taken, 1794—restored to Holland 1814—Demerara and Essequibo taken, 1803—Surinam, 1804—Surinam restored to Holland, 1814.
		Surinam.....	H.	...	...	.. ..			First settled by French, 1630—abandoned on account of unhealthy climate, 1650—resorted to by some English, 1662—Charter granted by Charles II—taken by Dutch, 1667—retaken by English, and ceded to Dutch in exchange for New York, 1674—attempted by French, 1689... ....

* The LEEWARD CARIBE ISLANDS, comprehending St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, and the Virgin Isles, have formed one distinct Government since the Year 1671, under a Governor denominated *Captain General of the Leeward and Caribe Islands*, whose residence is at Antigua, although he sometimes visits the others in which in his absence, where no Lieut. Governor is appointed, the President or the Council presides and executes nearly all the functions assigned to the Governor.

Governors of the Leeward or Caribe Islands.

Captain General, Sir Thomas Shirley, Bart. in 1702—Earl of Effingham, from 1703 to 1727—Major General, Arlate Williamson, in in 1727—1737—Lieut. Governor, Lord Byron, in 1737 to 1800—Lieut. Governor, Major General Hon. John Cox, in 1801—Lieut. Governor, Major General George Nugent from 1802 to 1806,—Lieut. General Sir Lyre Coote, in 1807—Captain General, Governor in Chief and Vice Admiral, High Lieut. or Lieutenant Governor.

† Dutch Guayana, of which the places in the above column are the most part) includes the districts of Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice and Surinam, and is bounded on the n. by the sea, on the e. by the Morowine or Maroni, w. by the *aurora* of Arawary, and s. by the Essequibo and Pumaron Rivers. It is n. e. Cape of Point to Narrow Leigh about 200 miles breadth 5° 5′, between n. lat. 1° 10′ and 7° 40′, and it long. 53° 50′ and 59° 30′.]

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the second periodical or autumnal season. Large towering clouds, fleecy and of a reddish hue, are]

[now seen, in the morning, in the quarters of the *s.* and *s. e.*; the tops of the mountains at the same time appear clear of clouds, and the objects upon them wear a bluish cast, and seem much nearer to the spectator than usual. When these vast accumulations of vapour have risen to a considerable height in the atmosphere, they commonly move horizontally towards the mountains, proclaiming their progress in deep and rolling thunder, which, reverberated from peak to peak, and answered by the distant roaring of the sea, heightens the majesty of the scene, and irresistibly lifts up the mind of the spectator to the great Author of all sublimity.

The waters, however, with which these congregated vapours load the atmosphere, seldom fall with great and general force until the beginning of October. It is then that the heavens pour down cataracts. An European who has not visited these climates, can form no just conception of the quantity of water which deluges the earth at this season: by an exact account which was kept of the rain which fell in one year in Barbadoes (1754) it appeared to have been $87\frac{1}{100}$ cubic inches, equal to 7 feet $3\frac{1}{100}$ inches perpendicular.

Taking the whole islands throughout, from 60 to 65 inches, appear to be about the medium of rain in seasonable years. If this quantity should annually fall in England, the country would be deluged, and the fruits of the earth destroyed. The power of the sun, at that distance from the equator, would be too feeble to exhale a sufficient quantity of it. On the other hand, if so small a portion as 21 inches only, should fall in the whole year at Barbadoes or Jamaica, where the exhalation by the sun and the sea breeze is so great, the springs and rivers would probably be dried up, and the inhabitants perish by thirst and famine.

It is now, in the interval between the beginning of August and the latter end of October, that hurricanes, those dreadful visitations of the Almighty, are apprehended. The prognostics of these elementary conflicts, have been minutely described by various writers, and their effects are known by late mournful experience to every inhabitant of every island within the tropics; concerning their immediate cause we shall presently have something to impart.

Earthquakes also are not unfrequent; but none have been productive of mischief since the fatal one of June, 1692, which swallowed up Port Royal. Slight shocks are felt in Jamaica every year, generally about the month of June, immediately after the May rains; but these little concussions have been attributed, with some reason, solely to changes in the atmosphere, and may, therefore, rather be called airquakes than earthquakes; they are however very terrifying. During the autumnal rains the climate is very sickly, and the four last months of the year commonly prove fatal to a great many of the old inhabitants, but more especially to persons of a full habit newly arrived from Europe, and seafaring people.

Towards the end of November, or sometimes not till the middle of December, a considerable change in the temperature of the air is perceivable. The coasts to the *n.* are now beaten by a rough and heavy sea, roaring with incessant noise; the wind varies from the *e.* to the *n. e.* and *n.*, sometimes driving before it, across the highest mountains, not only heavy rains but hail; till at length, the *n.* wind having acquired sufficient force, the atmosphere is cleared; and now comes on a succession of serene and pleasant weather, the *n. e.* and *n.* winds spreading coolness and delight throughout the whole of this burning region.

If this interval, therefore, from the beginning of December to the end of April, be called winter, it is certainly the finest winter on the globe. To valetudinarians and persons advanced in life, it is the climate of Paradise.

The account which we have thus given is, however, to be received not as uniformly exact and minutely particular; but as a general representation only, subject to many variations and exceptions, which will be found detailed under the particular islands. In the large islands of Cuba, Hispaniola, and Jamaica, whose lofty mountains are clothed with forests perhaps as old as the deluge, the rains are much more frequent and violent than in the small islands to windward; some of which are without mountains, and others without wood; both powerful agents on the atmosphere. In the interior and elevated districts of the three former islands, there are showers in every month of the year; and on the *n.* coasts of those islands, considerable rains are expected in December or January, soon after the setting in of the *n.* winds.

Thus far we have taken the more favourable view of the climate of these islands, and under circumstances in which it is supposed sufficient care may be taken against its more deleterious effects. In the case of the military, the same

[precautions could not always be had; and the mortality that has ensued, at different periods, was far more distressing than surprising. The following tables are recorded, not with a view of recapitulating past grievances, but as a means of pointing out, by comparison, the seasons, and the systems of management that may in future prove most conducive to the preservation of the soldier's life.

TABLES,

Showing the Mortality of Troops in the W. Indies, (exclusive of those who fell in Action) during Seven Years, from 1796 to 1802 inclusive, compiled from Regimental Returns collected by John Sayer, Esq. Commissary in the Windward and Leeward Islands during that Period.

No. I.

	European Soldiers.				Negro Soldiers.			Officers.
	Largest Force.	Medium Monthly Returns.	Died.	Per Cent.	Force.	Died.	Per Cent.	Died.
1796, April	19,676	15,881	6,484	40¼	2,495	75	3	226
1797, April	13,627	11,503	3,766	32¾	3,080	118	4	99
1798, April	9,192	8,416	1,602	17½	3,055	252	8	38
1799, Feb.	7,654	7,202	876	11¾	3,354	258	7¾	24
1800, Feb.	8,840	7,890	1,221	15½	4,320	286	6½	58
1801, Feb.	11,745	10,315	2,340	22¾	4,604	276	6	104
1802, Feb.	10,198	9,038	990	11	3,840	199	5	41
Original army	19,676	—	17,173	—	—	—	—	590

With relation to this table, it is to be remarked that in 1796-7, on opening the campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, with the great reinforcements then arrived in the W. Indies, the troops were generally unseasoned to the climate; the duties of fatigue and service, especially in St. Lucia and Grenada, were immediate and excessive, and barracks and hospitals were unprepared or insufficient; and to these, with other causes, may be attributed the very extraordinary mortality in the two first years.—1798, &c. the second period of four years, may afford premises for estimating the mortality of troops in the W. Indies, under exposure to climate, and duties of fatigue on active service.—1802, the last year, affords grounds of estimate, when a year of peace admits of care of the soldiery, in avoiding exposure to night dews and meridian suns, in regulating diet, and in mitigating fatigue. In reference to the black corps, it is to be observed, that the two first years (1796-7) they were newly raised, and probably not yet engaged in the hardships of service, and which accounts for the very few negroes lost in those years.]

[No. II.

Comparative Mortality of Troops in the W. Indies, in different Months and Seasons of the Year.

		European Soldiers.						Negro Soldiers.					
		Force.	Died each Month.	Died each Season.	On Medium Force.	Rate each Year.	Per Cent.	Force.	Died each Month.	Died each Season.	On Medium Force.	Rate each Year.	Per Cent.
Dry and Healthy Season.	December	7,248	49	—	—	—	—	3,292	13	—	—	—	—
	January	7,170	44	—	—	—	—	3,277	14	—	—	—	—
	February	10,198	110	—	—	—	—	4,275	18	—	—	—	—
	March	10,195	94	—	—	—	—	4,232	17	—	—	—	—
	April	10,133	67	—	—	—	—	4,220	9	—	—	—	—
	May	10,065	53	—	—	—	—	4,114	17	—	—	—	—
	June	10,000	55	—	—	—	—	3,903	14	—	—	—	—
	July	9,731	48	520	9,800	780	8	3,825	17	119	3,892	180	4¼
Rainy Season	August	8,880	82	—	—	—	—	3,759	28	—	—	—	—
	September	8,759	183	—	—	—	—	3,719	27	—	—	—	—
	October	8,385	105	—	—	—	—	3,461	7	—	—	—	—
	November	8,024	100	470	8,512	1410	17	3,448	18	80	3,597	240	6¾
Medium of the Year		9,038	—	990	—	—	11	4,000	—	199	—	—	5

From which it appears that the mortality of the four months of the rainy season is more than double that of the other eight months, being as 17 to 8 per cent. on the numerical forces of European soldiers; but that the deaths of the Negro soldiers, in the unhealthy months, increase only in the ratio of about one-third.

As a general prevention to those disorders to which the troops are liable, Sir William Young, who appears, with a laudable philanthropy, to have given the subject much attention, recommends, amongst the wise precautions in regard to clothing, &c. already adopted, open galleries and sheds in the barracks to shelter every passage and communication, covering the windows from the beating in of the rains, and preventing the soldier's exposure to the meridian sun, in every case, when actual service and duty do not require it; that not only each sentry walk, but the very parade should be covered; that the barracks being properly built, and adapted to a certain number of men, should on no occasion receive beyond the complement: above all, that the apartments for sleep should never be crowded, since the stifled soldier is thus often driven to the necessity of throwing open the windward casements, and letting in the heavy night dews on those in sleep, whereby the perspiration so necessary to health and life in those climates, by becoming checked, is the cause of fevers, fluxes, and the whole train of tropical disorders.

The necessity of limited service is another of the points on which he insists, and likewise on the formation of a depôt for military invalids and convalescents to be established in some one island; the situation of the same to be selected by medical commissioners, having before them military returns, and every document of past and comparative health, added to such personal inspection and observation as may best direct their judgment, and choice of situation, for a general hospital of recovery.

"Such place of depôt (continues this author) being chosen and prepared, soldiers from every regiment, and whatever island, after tedious intermittents, liver complaints, and other chronical cases, or consequent debility, should be sent for the re-establishment of health and strength, before the constitution is wholly broken and enervated by the disorder, or its effects. My information, in the first instance, would direct to Dorsetshire Hill, in the island of St. Vincent's."]

[*Winds and hurricanes.*—Concerning the trade-wind, or diurnal sea-breeze, which blows in these climates from the *e.* and its collateral points, with little intermission or variation nine months in the year, the causes of it having been traced and displayed by numerous writers, it is unnecessary for us to treat; but the peculiarity of the land-wind by night (than which nothing can be more grateful and refreshing) has been less generally noticed. This is an advantage, among others, which the larger islands of the W. Indies derive from the great inequality of their surface; for as soon as the sea-breeze dies away, the hot air of the plains being rarefied, ascends towards the tops of the mountains, and is there condensed by the cold; which making it specifically heavier than it was before, it descends back to the plains on both sides of the ridge. Hence a night-wind is felt in all the mountainous countries under the torrid zone, blowing on all sides from the land towards the shore, so that on a *n.* shore the wind shall come from the *s.* and on the *s.* shore from the *n.* Agreeably to this hypothesis, it is observable that in the islands to windward, where they have no mountains, they have no land-breeze.

In Barbadoes, and most of the small islands to windward, the sea-breeze blows as well by night as by day. It is sometimes the case in Jamaica in the months of June and July, the land at that time being heated to such a degree, that the cold air of the mountains is not sufficiently dense to check the current which flows from the sea.

Many persons are of opinion, that among the consequences attendant on rain, earthquakes may be enumerated; but they are now so unfrequent, in Hispañola at least, that they create no sensations whatever of dread. It is, however, more, perhaps, from their having been generally noticed to occur at the end of the rainy season, and those when the tides rise to the highest, that philosophers have said that they might be attributed to these two causes, which may, however, be thought to have a collateral operation.

The united waters of the sky and sea rush on, and ravage and undermine the earth in convulsive shocks. The sea, particularly, in this quarter, bursts with redoubled force on the coasts, and there spends its fury Amongst the most violent assaults of this unquiet and turbulent element, are those which are experienced once or twice a year, between the months of July and October, and which are called in the colonies, *raz de maree.* They are always most noticed on the *w.* coasts, when the winds have continued blowing from that quarter, or the *s.* The waves then break on the shore with an astonishing violence, and throw the spray in milky clouds around. No vessels in the outports or open roads, can, at that time, keep their anchors.

The hurricanes are, however, thought to be serviceable to the crops, in both increasing and bringing them forward. Whether it is, that these violent agitations, in rending the bosom of the earth, prepare it for fecundity, or that they leave behind them some particles proper to the vegetation of plants, appears difficult to decide; it has, however, been remarked, that this apparent and passing disorder, was not only a consequence of the constant order of nature, which provided for regeneration, by the means of previous destruction; but a cause of preservation to the whole system of reproduction.

The first settlers of the Antilles, thought they had discovered the certain prognostics of this alarming event. They considered it was indicated by the air being troubled, the disk of the sun turning red, and being covered with a thick vapour, that added to its size. The caverns emitted a sound as if winds were closed and pent up within them. To the *n. w.* the sky was seen to lower, the sea groaned and sent forth a strong smell, and though its surface was not broke in waves, it seemed to swell and roll in long and wide bodies of lifted water. The wind suddenly changed from the *e.* to the *w.*, and blew with quick and increased violence.

These hurricanes are seldom experienced from the *e.*, their influence is in general partial, and what is still more strange is, that though they often scour the windward islands, nay, one may almost say, annually, they are not often felt below Puerto Rico. This has induced many to believe, that they are formed on the continent; for the *w.* wind, which sometimes reigns, blows with violence in the *s.*, meeting with the *n.* wind, which in his turn having sway, produces a shock equal to their respective rapidity and acquired motion. If this happens in the long and narrow defiles of the mountains, a current of air must naturally issue, and extend in proportion to the assumed force and impulsive velocity, and of a size on a parallel with the channel, in which it has been confined. All solid bodies which may be opposed to this impelling torrent of air, will receive a shock proportionate to their surface; but happily the different bearings of the islands, their angular and spherical figures, present to these volumes of compressed air, surfaces more or less oblique, which serve to break the current, divide]

[its force, and gradually disunite its dreaded power. Experience has proved this to be so much the case, that, in a direction where a hurricane has smitten with its greatest and combined fury, it has frequently not been perceived 10 leagues to windward or to leeward.

Soil and Productions.—The soil of the West India islands is generally formed of layers of rich clay, or soft light gravel, on a bed of rock, which renders the different qualities and proportions more or less suited to vegetation. Where the clay is found less humid, and easily broken, mixed with spreads of rotten leaves, and crumbled remains of plants, the soil is thicker than where it is only composed of rich clays. Where the earth is light, less compact, and as it were more porous, the dew and moisture are imbibed the deeper, and preserves longer that freshness, which is the parent of fecundity. Where these advantages are not united, the soil is more sterile, and as soon as the layers which have been created by the long decomposition of original plants and vegetable productions, becomes destroyed, by the surface being too much exposed to the action of the sun, the salt and juicy particles exhale; for which reason, in colonial plantations, umbrageous trees are mixed, as well to preserve the nutritive moisture of the ground, as to protect the tender nurseling from the potent rays of the mid-day sun, and the powerful and dreaded effects of the sweeping winds, till it has taken sufficient root, and horizontally spread its own branches for the purposes of its defence. In coffee grounds the upper shoots are always cut, which makes the sucker spread below to shelter the space it covers, and as a convenience also to the gatherer of the berries who cannot easily reach beyond six feet. It is in consequence of this great evaporation of the particles of nutrition, that lands which have been long uncovered of their native forests, are not suited to any planting that requires rich or forced soil, and only serve for sugar, which needs less indulgence.

When the Europeans first landed on these shores, they found them covered with large, lofty, and stately trees, bound as it were together, with a great variety of wood-bands and creepers, which rendered them impenetrable till they were cut; and of these native forests many are yet in their original state in Hispañola, though the other islands in general have seen them exhausted. These tall, straight, and towering woods, apparently coeval with the formation of the world, seemed to possess several generations of trees, and the annual falling of their leaves, their decomposition, and the successive decay of their limbs and trunks, gave the surface of the soil, that rich sediment or deposit which produced so rapid an increase of vegetation, when plants, reared by the hand of man, were substituted for those groves, which first studded the face of the country. The roots of the largest trees, it is yet remarkable, do not strike perpendicularly into the ground, but seem to take an horizontal direction at the distance of two feet from the surface, inclining that way in search of the moist influence of the rains, which do not generally sink deeper, from being again absorbed by the solar ray, and only partially replaced by the descending dews. Trees again found on the rugged summit of the mountain, or the naked sides of the precipice, are comparatively so hard and solid, as to blunt the best tempered tools, as well from the time exhausted in their growth, as from the little moisture by which it has been assisted. In the valleys therefore, refreshed as they are by the mountain cascade, the woods are uniformly of a softer texture, but clothed in greater verdure. There the native shrubs and nutritive roots, destined for the subsistence of man, grew in their original state, seemingly planted by a superior hand, to be the staff of life in these regions, both from their variety, utility, and wholesomeness.

Nature, which appears to have placed a degree of relation between the character of the people and the productions which are to form their subsistence, had gifted the Antilles with vegetables which shunned the mid-day heat, that sought the freshening shade, that required little or no culture, suited to the languor of the natives, and which were yearly reproduced, twice or three times. Their inhabitants appeared not ambitious of improving or aiding her spontaneous operations, but suffered nature freely and unmolested to produce her bounties, nor ever thought of destroying one of her productions, to give greater vigour to another. Directed by the hand of chance, as the season came, they gathered what the earth had prepared for their aliment, but were not sensible of the advantages of timely or added culture.

To these tuberous roots, with which the country was stored, were superadded fruits of a variety of kinds, and of different size and flavour; as well intended for the food of man, as to allay the parching effects of a torrid zone, and relieve his system from the effects of fatigue, under the influence of a glowing sun. These fruit trees were the ornament of the forest, as well as the]

[waving beauty of the plain, according to their genus; they required no care, and ministered to the wants of the journeying Indian, as well as of those who were collected into clans. The cabbage tree and forest fruits now often give subsistence to runaway negroes, who travel on devious roads from one end of the island to the other, and alone serve to nourish them for many months. It is remarkable, that the creeper and wood-band, which cling to, and often out-top the tallest inhabitant of the woods, seldom or never approach those which bear fruit, as if parent nature had stamped them with respectful deference to what was destined to form the sustenance and relief of man.

In other vegetables, however, such as eatable herbs, &c. these islands seemed deficient, and purslane and water-cresses nearly filled up the list. They had no domestic fowls, and all the game they have, though now found in abundance, consists chiefly of exotics. The finny race, nevertheless, was not wanting to the pleasure and convenience of the aborigines, though, in general, it is less healthy and more tasteless, than that taken in the European waters. But their woods were crowded with medicinal herbs, gums, and balsams, suited to the ills of the climate, which they were intended to counteract, and the mineral rills which roll down from the mountains, served to give tone to the human frame, and add to the blessings of health.

Notwithstanding that the rains refresh the air, they, at the same time, give it a certain moisture, that is not only uncomfortable, but extremely destructive. Flesh meat, for this reason, is soon tainted; and it becomes necessary to consign dead bodies early to their graves. Bread soon turns mouldy, wine easily sours, fruits decay soon after they are plucked; but this corroding and humid power, is most prevalent on iron and steel, which soon rust, so as to render an assortment of hardware, whose merit often depends on the polish, a very dangerous selection in this country, for, being closed up in stores, where a current of air cannot remove the damp atmosphere, they soon tarnish, and, if neglected, spoil.

Garden seeds can scarcely be preserved till the season of putting them into the ground arrives, nor can it be considered, on this account, healthy to visit the churches in the night or morning, till they have been opened some time, and are well ventilated from the pernicious miasmata that arise from the vaults and burying places. Books and papers easily moulder away, or are devoured by a small insect that burrows in them; for which reason, when the French held possession of the w. end of Santo Domingo, every notary, magistrate, and parish curate, was obliged annually to send over legalized copies of all their transactions and records, for the purpose of being preserved in the archives of Paris, and secured from the destruction of the colonial climate. These now serve as a partial consolation, at least, to the expelled planters of the island, for, although they have lost their estates, they have yet access to the titles of property. Owing to this great decay of papers, and their continually being consumed by worms, which prey upon them, the archives of the city of Santo Domingo do not contain any writing or document of ancient date. In consequence, also, of the moisture of the surrounding element, the poisonous qualities of the ink seem to have corroded through, and destroyed the texture of the paper; but a letter written by Columbus, is said to be preserved in Jamaica. The natives also say, that many of their public records were destroyed, in the capture of the city, by Sir Francis Drake.

These moist properties of the air, are, in a more striking manner, observed, with regard to all sorts of grain. This was one of the causes, in the early days of the discovery, that reduced Columbus to such great distress for want of provisions; his grains and flour fermented and became spoiled, his followers were dissatisfied and clamorous, heavy complaints were sent over by the fleets to Spain against the admiral, which formed one link of that chain of misfortunes, which afterwards fell upon him. The wheat and barley were observed soon to sprout, swell, and be rendered useless. The French, in storing their garrisoned towns in the W. Indies, found that it greatly aided to the preservation of flour, to pack it very tight in the barrels, by beating it with an iron weight, which rendered it less impervious to the destructive air. A plan was afterwards thought of, which fixed the attention, and received the encouragement of their ministers; which was to pass it, when powdered, through kilns, which operation removed all moisture, and destroyed the yet remaining vegetable particles. Experiments have also proved, that it is a great advantage, in point of preservation, frequently to besmear the barrels, particularly of American flour, which are packed loosely, with the greasy brine in which pork has been put up, as it helps greatly to fill up the pores, and hinders the many weavels from lodging in the wood, which is the first point of their attack, so that an old flour barrel, in which they have]

[spread devastation, is perforated throughout like a honeycomb, particularly in the heading.

Animals.—The majestic groves of these islands were found to be enlivened by the singular forms of some, and the surprising beauty of others of the inferior animals which possessed and peopled them. Although a fuller description of them more properly appertains to the Appendix of this Dictionary, a few observations which at present occur, will not, perhaps, be misplaced. If it be true, as it hath been asserted, that in most of the regions of the torrid zone, the heat of the sun is, as it were, reflected in the untameable fierceness of their wild beasts, and in the exalted rage and venom of the numerous serpents with which they are infested, the Sovereign Disposer of all things has regarded the islands of the W. Indies with peculiar favour; inasmuch as their serpents are wholly destitute of poison, and they possess no animal of prey to desolate their vallies. This assertion is, doubtlessly, as great as extraordinary; but it is made on the authority of Brown, Charlevoix, and Hughes, (of whom the first compiled the History of Jamaica, the second that of Hispaniola, and the last that of Barbadoes)—on the testimony of many gentlemen who have resided in several of the Windward Islands—and, lastly, on the known experience of Bryan Edwards, who passed eighteen years of his life in Jamaica. The crocodile, or alligator, is indeed sometimes discovered on the banks of their rivers; but, notwithstanding all that has been said of its fierce and savage disposition, it is pronounced, on the best authorities, to be a cautious and timid creature, avoiding, with the utmost precipitation, the approach of man. The rest of the lizard kind are perfectly innocent and inoffensive. Some of them are even fond of human society. They embellish the walks by their beauty, and court attention by gentleness and frolic; but their kindness, it must be owned, is returned by aversion and disgust. Anciently the woods of almost all the equatorial parts of America abounded with various tribes of the smaller monkey, a sportive and sagacious little creature, which the people of Europe seem likewise to have regarded with detestation; for they hunted them down with such assiduity, that in several of the islands every species of them has been long since exterminated. Of the feathered race too, many tribes have now nearly deserted those shores where polished man delights in spreading universal and capricious destruction. Among these, one of the most remarkable was the flamingo, an elegant and princely bird, nearly] as large as the swan, and arrayed in plumage of the brightest scarlet. Numerous, however, are the feathered kinds, deservedly distinguished by their splendour and beauty, that still animate these sylvan recesses. The parrot, and its various affinities, from the maccaw to the parroquet, some of them not larger than a sparrow, are too well known to require description. These are as plentiful in the larger islands of the W. Indies as the rook is in Europe. But the boast of American groves is doubtless the colibry, or humming bird; of the brilliance of whose plumage no combination of words, nor tints of the pencil, can convey an adequate idea. The consummate green of the emerald, the rich purple of the amethyst, and the vivid flame of the ruby, all happily blended and enveloped beneath a transparent veil of waving gold, are distinguishable in every species, but differently arranged and apportioned in each. Nor is the minuteness of its form less the object of admiration, than the lustre of its plumage; the smallest species not exceeding the size of a beetle, and appearing the link which connects the bird and insect creation.

It has been observed, however, that although nature is profuse of ornament to the birds of the torrid zone, she has bestowed far greater powers of melody on those of Europe; and the observation is partly true. That prodigality and variety of music which in the vernal season enlivens the British groves, is certainly unknown to the shades of the tropical regions; yet are not these altogether silent or inharmonious. The note of the mockbird is deservedly celebrated, while the hum of myriads of busy insects, and the plaintive melody of the innumerable variety of doves abounding in these climates, form a concert, which, if it serves not to awaken the fancy, contributes at least to soothe the affections, and, like the murmuring of a rivulet, gives harmony to repose.

Mountains and Rivers.—It is in the magnitude, extent, and elevation of the mountains of the New World, that the Almighty has most strikingly manifested the wonders of his omnipotence. Those of S. America are nearly twice the height of the highest in the ancient hemisphere, and, even under the equator, have their tops involved in everlasting snow. To those massive piles, the loftiest summits of the most elevated of the W. Indian islands cannot indeed be compared; but some of these rise, nevertheless, in amazing grandeur, and are among the first objects that fix the attention of the voyager. The mountains of Hispaniola in particular, whose wavy ridges are descried from sea at the distance of 30 leagues,]

[towering far above the clouds in stupendous magnificence, and the blue mountains of Jamaica, have never yet been satisfactorily explored. Neither curiosity nor avarice has hitherto ventured to invade the topmost of those lofty regions. In such of them as are accessible, nature is found to have put on the appearance of a new creation. As the climate changes, the trees, the birds, and the insects are seen also to differ from those which are met with below. To an unaccustomed spectator, looking down from those heights, the whole scene appears like enchantment. The first object which catches the eye at the dawn of day, is a vast expanse of vapour, covering the whole face of the vallies. Its boundaries being perfectly distinct and visibly circumscribed, it has the exact resemblance of an immense body of water; whilst the mountains appear like so many islands in the midst of a beautiful lake. As the sun increases in force, the prospect varies: the incumbent vapours fly upward, and melt into air; disclosing all the beauties of nature, and the triumphs of industry, heightened and embellished by the full blaze of a tropical sun. In the equatorial season, scenes of still greater magnificence frequently present themselves; for, while all is calm and serene in the higher regions, the clouds are seen below sweeping along the sides of the mountains in vast bodies; until growing more ponderous by accumulation, they fall at length in torrents of water on the plains. The sound of the tempest is distinctly heard by the spectator above; the distant lightning is seen to irradiate the gloom; while the thunder, reverberated in a thousand echoes, rolls far beneath his feet.

The direction of the mountains that stud and diversify these several islands, is on a parallel with the situation and bearings of each; and their summits form the same regular curve. The waters also which issue from their bosoms, seem in like manner to incline to the *w.* The three largest, viz. Puerto Rico, Hispañola, and Cuba, have indeed some rivers, which descend to the *n.* and *e.*, but they are not so large, or so general as those which fall in the other two directions; but the ocean beats with greatest violence to the *s.*, though the volume of water is there less than that which constitutes the Atlantic seas. Besides the evident parallel directions of the mountains, that coincides also with the Main, we are further led to suppose them to be detached islands, from the similarity of indigenous productions remarkable in each: thus in Tobago, Marguerita, and Trinidad, to windward, and which lie off from the main, the wild cocoa, and a variety of soft woods are found, such as correspond to the opposite shores; and in Cuba, and the other extreme islands to leeward, the cedar, cypress, &c. are produced, the same as in the Floridas.

Reflections concerning the Origin of the Islands.—Lofty as the tropical mountains generally are, it is wonderfully true, that all the known parts of their summits furnish incontestable evidence that the sea had once dominion over them. Even their appearance at a distance affords an argument in support of this conclusion. Their ridges resemble billows, and their various inequalities, inflexions, and convexities, seem justly ascribable to the fluctuations of the deep. As in other countries too, marine shells are found in great abundance in various parts of these heights. On a mountain in the interior parts of Jamaica petrified oysters have been dug up, which perfectly resembled, in the most minute circumstances, the large oysters of the *w.* coast of England; a species not to be found at this time, it is believed, in the seas of the W. Indies. Here then is an ample field for conjecture to expatiate in; and indeed few subjects have afforded greater exercise to the pens of physical writers, than the appearances here mentioned. While some philosophers assign the origin of all the various inequalities of the earth to the ravages of the deluge, others, considering the mountains as the parents of springs and rivers, maintain that they are coeval with the world; and that, first emerging from the abyss, they were created with it. Some again ascribe them to the force of volcanoes and earthquakes: "the Almighty," say they, "while he permits subterranean fires to swallow up cities and plains in one part of the globe, causes them to produce promontories and islands in another, which afterwards become the fruitful seats of industry and happiness." (See Goldsmith's History of the Earth, &c. vol. i.)

All these and other theorists concur, however, in the belief that the surface of the globe has undergone many surprising and violent convulsions and changes since it first came from the hands of the Creator. Hills have sunk into plains, and vallies have been exalted into hills. Respecting the numerous islands of the W. Indies, they are generally considered as the tops of lofty mountains, the eminences of a great continent, converted into islands by a tremendous concussion of nature, which, having increased the natural course of the ocean from *e.* to *w.*, has laid a vast extent of level country under water. (See L'Abbé Raynal, L'Abbé Pluche, and others.)

Other writers, instead of considering these]

[islands as the fragments of a desolated continent, are disposed to regard them as the rudiments of a new one. They think it not improbable that many of them, even now, are but beginning to emerge from the bosom of the deep. Mr. Buffon has shown, with much ingenuity, that the bottom of the sea bears an exact resemblance to the land which we inhabit; consisting, like the earth, of hills and vallies, plains and hollows, rocks, sands, and soils of every consistence and species. To the motion of the waves, and the sediments which they have deposited, he imputes too, with great probability, the regular positions of the various strata or layers which compose the upper parts of the earth; and he shows that this arrangement cannot have been the effect of a sudden revolution, but of causes slow, gradual, and successive in their operations. To the flow of tides and rivers, depositing materials which have been accumulating ever since the creation, and the various fluctuations of the deep operating thereon, he ascribes, therefore, most of those inequalities in the present appearance of the globe, which in some parts embellish, and in others (to our limited view at least) appear to deface it.

CHAP. II.

BETWEEN THE YEARS 1625 AND 1793.

Early History and Settlement, 1625.—*Expedition of the Dutch*, 1630.—*Treaty of Mutual Cessions*, 1660.—*Buccaneers.—These acknowledged by France*, 1665.—*Capture of Jamaica, under Cromwell.—Carthagena captured by Buccaneers, with the aid of France*, 1685.—*Dreadful Earthquake in Jamaica*, 1692.—*French Invasion.—Pacification with Negroes*, 1738.—*Revolt of the same*, 1760.—*Succession of Hurricanes.—Claims of Great Britain and France to Neutral Islands*, 1763.—*Loss of the British Sugar Islands*, 1778.—*Restoration of the same*, 1783.

An historical narrative of all the events that have taken place in these islands would form a subject very diffuse, and in many points uninteresting; but there are facts which require to be recorded as eminent in themselves, and as having given rise to a string of consequences at once decisive and important. A statement of all the conquests, cessions, treatises, and remarkable events, that apply to each island, is already given in the foregoing chapter. A dilatation on some of them will be necessary.

It will be gathered from what has been recorded in other parts of this Work, that the English and French established themselves in the windward islands, on the ruin of the Caribes. These ports afterwards became the first seats in the colonies, for partial armaments made to intercept the Spanish vessels that visited those seas. The depredations continued even in times of peace; and, in retaliation, the Spaniards seized all vessels they met in the islands, which they considered as exclusively belonging to them, from their prior discovery. Both the English and French long frequented these shores, where they were well received by the Caribes, before they thought of making any settlements. In 1625, both formed a lodgment on St. Christopher's, and peaceably divided the island between them, intent only on enriching themselves with the spoils of the common enemy. The natives retired, telling them "that land must be very scarce and bad in their countries, since they came so far, and amidst so many dangers in search of fresh ones, that had little alluring in their quality or appearance."

The court of Madrid viewed these settlements with a jealous eye, and in 1630 sent Admiral Toledo with a formidable fleet to the Brazils, intended to operate against the Dutch. They ordered him on his way to exterminate these pirates, as they called them, and who, according to the notions of that crown, had usurped part of their possessions; but it was the dread of neighbourhood with two active and enterprising people, that led at this early period to such direct hostilities. The greatest part of the French who escaped upon the first defeat, went down to the small island of Tortuga, opposite the *w.* end of Hispañola, and eventually receiving succours from their government at home, at length got possession of part of the main island, by which means the Spaniards lost what they prized more than the useless island from which they had driven them.

The English and the other French who escaped the sword of the Spaniards at St. Christopher's fled to other islands, and the latter, busied about their other more valuable possessions of the main, left them there to repose in tranquillity. The conquered settlers, to the great misfortune of the Caribes, soon suspended their national rivalries. Frequent and destructive wars were waged mutually against them, and the different islands often presented scenes of horror and desolation. These hitherto adventurers did not receive the consideration of their respective governments at home, till the month of January 1660, when a treaty was formed, which secured to each nation the possessions which the varied fortune of war had]

[mutually placed in their power. By this treaty it was stipulated, that France should retain Martinique, Grenada, and Guadaloupe; and England was to maintain Barbadoes, Nevis, Antigua, and Montserrat; but St. Christopher's was to remain, in common, between the two nations. The Caribes were confined to Dominica and St. Vincent, where their population was now reduced to 6000; but they have gradually decreased from that number as the white population has spread, and at present there are only a few left, who live separate in a kind of independence, too insignificant to deserve force being carried against them. These islands have all undergone a change of fortune; in general, those of the French have been taken in time of war, and given up at the making of peace; and previous to the treaty of the present year, 1814, the English and Spaniards were masters of all the W. Indies excepting St. Bartholomew's, which was too inconsiderable to merit the attention of either.

The English colonies, in the first stages of culture, flourished more than those of the French, owing to a greater naval protection, and the better establishment of regulations. The latter, like the Spaniards, soon fell into the depressing system of abusive privileges and monopoly. As we have already observed, many of the French adventurers, who had escaped the inroads of the Spaniards at St. Christopher's, effected a lodgement on Tortuga, and turned their pursuits first to privateering, and then to form settlements on the opposite and fertile shores of Hispañola.

They were at first called Buccaneers, from the colonial word *boucan*, which means a fire made in the woods, at which they dressed and smoked their food, in a kind of barbarian way. They were yet without women, and they associated in small parties. Every thing was in common, and descended to the survivors, and they resembled some of the clans which Cæsar found when he conquered the Gauls. Whenever personal disputes occurred, if the arbitration of the neighbours was unavailing, they ended in duels, fought at a certain distance with their firelocks. Their own country was forgotten. They even changed their family names, and adopted warlike ones, or *noms de guerre,* that afterwards descended to their families, and created some singular law-suits among the most wealthy of the future planters respecting genealogy, as they afterwards became the greatest landholders in the country when it was planted, and left behind them the largest and most valuable estates.

A shirt, often stained in the blood of the animals killed in the chase, a thick pantaloon, and a leather girdle, from which hung a short sword or manchete, a butcher's knife, a pair of sandals made of dried hides, formed their clothing and accoutrements; and a musket that carried an ounce ball, and some good bull-dogs, were what they depended on for subsistence and defence. Their time was taken up in hunting the bulls, which, since the discovery of the Spaniards, had increased to such a rapid degree, that the hide was all they sought; and these were collected in the bye ports, where the Dutch and Danes came to barter with the arms, ammunition, and clothing the hunters required.

To these original settlers of the great colony of French St. Domingo were added, redemptioners, or a species of poor men, who were carried out from Europe; and, for the consideration of their passage, were sold to the Buccaneers, whom they consented to serve for three years, at the expiration of which time they became free, and might work for themselves. These were what the French called, *un trente six mois*, or redemptioners. They became, as it were, the founders of the colony, and many afterwards sought to be ennobled with brevets of nobility.

Men of this description, hardened by continual exercise, and daily fed with fresh meat and game, were not subject to infirmities, and their daily exposure to danger made them so familiar with it, that they became a deadly foe to the troops which the Spanish government of Santo Domingo sent against them. The Spanish colony however which, in the early times, as it is known, had reached a high degree of splendour and consistency, had gradually declined, and, by this time, retained little else than the shadow of what it had been. At different periods strong expeditions were, however, sent out against the Buccaneers, who fled to the mountains, which they were obliged to defend with unequal success. At length the Spaniards resolved, themselves, to kill all the horned cattle that had spread in the *w.* end of the island, and this effected, they returned to the *e.* leaving the desert woods and plains to the quiet possession of the former hunters, who, finding their pristine habits of life useless, turned their attention to planting, at first for their own subsistence, which laid the great foundation to the most important colony in the W. Indies.

In 1665, it was that France began to acknowledge them, and sent them out a governor; and women were picked up to be distributed amongst them. The morals of these could not be supposed to be the best, from the manner in which]

[they were collected: they were, in general, amassed from the purlieus of the large cities, and were within the power of the police, at the time they were sent out. They were, however, the most acceptable to these hermits, and chance decided their lot. "I take thee," the husband generally said, "without caring what thou hast been. Thy being here, is an indication that thy past life has not been the most exemplary, but I need little about it. I do not ask thee to render me any account of the past, thou wert then mistress of thy own will and actions, but I shall demand of thee rigorously to answer for what is to come." Then striking the butt end of his musket, he added, "this is what will avenge me of thy future infidelities; if thou art wanting to me, this wilt thou not escape:"—and thus was the marriage ceremony ended.

In the meantime, the Buccaneers were not confined in their feats of prowess to the shores of Hispañola. After driving the Spaniards from Tortuga, they erected fortifications. They fitted out light vessels manned with from 70 to 150 daring spirits, who formed into a company, and cruized with the greatest success against the common enemy. They seemed to be a congregation of all nations, and many Indians preferred their free mode of life to that forced restraint they experienced from the Spaniards. They generally boarded their enemy, and their history is filled with feats that would ever have ennobled the naval annals of any nation. Vessels laden with merchandize from Europe were not sufficiently tempting, they had no means of expending such cargoes, they waited till they returned freighted with precious metals. They have even attacked the galleons, and were dreaded by strong convoys, which they followed to pick up the stragglers. They went round into the S. Seas, spread terror along the coasts of Peru and California, and even captured the armed force that was sent to repel them: frequently the English and French joined in the same attack, and fraternally shared the spoils. The first lots were always laid aside for those who had been wounded in the combat; and an extra remuneration was besides made, according to the deserts of the case. The commander had only a right to one share, like the rest of the crew, but they presented him with more, in a way proportioned to the zeal and activity he had displayed, and if any were killed in the action, their parts were given to their relations.

The Spanish navigation being unprotected by a naval force, and continually exposed to dangers, became confined, the merchants finding their property continually devastated by these privateers, ceased their commercial relations, and sea-privateering at length became a trade to the Buccaneers scarcely worth following. They then turned their attacks to some of the rich maritime towns of the main continent, and to Cuba, but amongst all their acts of atrocious courage and cruel audacity, none were rendered so famous as those of the leader Montbars. His dislike to the Spaniards commenced in early youth, when at college, and carried him to lengths almost unprecedented. A handful of the Buccaneers took and pillaged Maracaibo, and overran the country surrounding the lake. They burnt the town of Gibraltar on the Main, because its pillage did not answer their expectations, and Maracaibo would have met with the same fate, had not the inhabitants ransomed the town. They, however, carried off all the valuables they could meet with, several images and bells, many of which are existing at present in Port au Prince, particularly a large Saviour on the cross, cut out of iron-wood, and much revered by the common people. It was in this interval, that Morgan, one of the most famous Buccaneers of Jamaica, made himself master of Porto Bello. After surprising the town, he took possession of the forts, by making the women and friars march before him, and first ascend the ladders, supposing that the garrison would not fire upon the objects of their love and respect. He afterwards took and ravaged Panama, which was preceded by the destruction of St. Catherines.

The declension of Spain, had, in the mean time, brought on a state of langour which soon reached her distant colonies. The peninsula had long become the seat of domestic divisions, and it was weakened by the revolt in Catalonia and Portugal, by convulsions in the kingdom of Naples, by the defeat of the Spanish armies at Rocroy, in 1643, when 9000 Spaniards and Walloons are said to have fallen after having refused to take quarter; by their continued losses in the Low Countries, by the incapacity of those placed at the head of affairs, and by the apparent extinction of that national pride which had till then made them so famous. This was a moment too auspicious not be seized upon both by the English and French to attack her foreign dominions. Accordingly Cromwell, in 1655, sent an expedition that captured Jamaica, which from the year 1509 had remained under the Spanish flag, and its former inhabitants retired to Cuba.

From Jamaica several expeditions were formed against the Main, and often carried on in concert]

[with the French Buccaneers, as the same object led on both parties. Peru now became the point of attack, and each nation thought of bringing back to their own homes, riches, and an abundance of pillage. Some marched to the S. Sea by the isthmus of Darien, and others went round by the Straits of Magellan, in all to the number of 4000 men. On arriving, they spread desolation and terror in every direction, they took upwards of 20 towns, pillaged the country round, and laid every place, through which they passed, under contribution.

The issue of this famous expedition did not answer however the expectations of the adventurers, many fell a prey to the climate, others again in returning loaded with their spoils, fell into ambuscades, which were placed to intercept them, some perished with hunger, so that few got safe to their respective islands. Many of the vessels in doubling Cape Horn were lost, and an expedition which had taken four years to effect it, ended in nearly the destruction of the brave band that undertook it.

Campeachy was the next place on which the Buccaneers of St. Domingo resolved a descent, and in 1685 it was carried into execution. The inhabitants fled into the woods, so great was their dread of these famed ravagers of their country, a considerable booty was carried off, but the last most memorable occurrence of these daring men was the capture of Carthagena in conjunction with an armed force from France. The war, however, which soon afterwards broke out with the Prince of Orange, creating a division of interests in the Buccaneers of the English and French islands, these depredations ceased; the respestive governments began to encourage the progress of culture, the toils of the field were assumed, and this hardy and enterprising race of men, gradually became dispersed, and distributed in the tilling of grounds, eventually laying the foundation of those two great colonies, which we have witnessed in our own days, and that have progressively exceeded those of any other nations.

The year 1692 was marked by one of the most tremendous earthquakes that ever visited this hemisphere. It happened on the 7th of June; Port Royal of Jamaica was in part swallowed up by its destructive influence. A description of it, dreadfully minute, may be found in the Philosophical Transactions; but it ought to be observed, as not being generally known, that the town was chiefly built on a bank of sand, adhering to a rock in the sea, and that a very slight concussion, aided by the weight of the buildings, might probably have accomplished its destruction.

The inhabitants were scarcely recovered from the terrors occasioned by the earthquake, when they were alarmed with an account of an intended invasion by an armament from Hispañola, commanded by Mons. Du Casse, the governor of that island, in person. Accordingly on the 17th of June, 1694, a fleet of three men of war, and a 20 privateers (having on board 1,500 land forces) appeared off Cow Bay, where 800 of the soldiers were landed, with orders to desolate the country as far as Port Morant. The French obeyed their instructions to the full extent. They not only set fire to every settlement they came to, but, according to the account transmitted by Sir William Beeston, the governor, to the secretary of state, tortured their prisoners in the most shocking manner, and were guilty of many other abominable excesses. Unfortunately, the militia of this part of the country had been drawn off to guard the capital; whereby the French continued their ravages without resistance, and having set fire to all the plantations within their reach, and seized about 1000 negroes, Du Casse sailed to leeward, and anchored in Carlisle Bay, in the parish of Vere. This place had no other fortification than an ill-contrived breast-work, manned by a detachment of 200 men from the militia of St. Elizabeth and Clarendon, which Du Casse attacked with all his force. The English made a gallant resistance; but Colonel Cleyborn, Lieutenant Colonel Smart, Captain Vassal, and Lieutenant Dawkins being killed, and many others dangerously wounded, they were compelled to retreat. Happily, at this moment, arrived five companies of militia, which the governor had sent to their assistance from Spanish Town. These, though they had marched thirty miles without refreshment, immediately charged the enemy with such vigour, as entirely to change the fortune of the day. The French retreated to their ships, and Du Casse soon afterwards returned to Hispañola with his ill-gotten booty.

In 1712, on the 28th of August, and again on the same day of the same month, in the year 1722, Jamaica was shaken to its foundations by a dreadful hurricane. This day, therefore, as well as the 7th of June, the Colonial Legislature has, by an act of assembly, piously set apart for fasting and humiliation, though its commemoration is annually falling off.

The next important occurrence in the history]

[of this island, was the pacification, concluded in 1738, with the hostile negroes called *Maroons*; but the respite which this treaty afforded the inhabitants from intestine commotion was of short duration. In 1760, the very existence of the colony was endangered by a revolt of the enslaved negroes. This revolt arose at the instigation of a Koromantyn Negro of the name of Tacky, who had been a chief in Guinea; and it broke out on the frontier plantation in St. Mary's parish. The insurgent band having collected themselves into a body, about one o'clock in the morning proceeded to the fort at Port Maria; killed the centinel, and provided themselves with as great a quantity of arms and ammunition as they could conveniently dispose of. Being by this time joined by a number of their countrymen from the neighbouring plantations, they marched up the high road, that led to the interior parts of the country, carrying death and desolation as they went. At Ballard's Valley they surrounded the overseer's house about four in the morning, in which finding all the white servants in bed, they butchered every one of them in the most savage manner, and literally drank their blood mixed with rum. At Esher, and other estates, they exhibited the same tragedy; and then set fire to the buildings and canes. In one morning they murdered between 30 and 40 Whites and Mulattoes, not sparing even infants at the breast, before their progress was stopped. Tacky, the chief, was killed in the woods by one of the parties that went in pursuit of them; but some others of the ringleaders being taken, and a general inclination to revolt appearing among all the Koromantyn Negroes in the island, it was thought necessary to make a few terrible examples of some of the most guilty. Of three who were clearly proved to have been concerned in the murders committed at Ballard's Valley, one was condemned to be burnt, and the other two to be hung up alive in irons, and left to perish in that dreadful situation. The wretch that was burnt was made to sit on the ground, and his body being chained to an iron stake, the fire was applied to his feet. He uttered not a groan, and saw his legs reduced to ashes with the utmost firmness and composure; after which, one of his arms by some means getting loose, he snatched a brand from the fire that was consuming him, and flung it in the face of the executioner. The two that were hung up alive were indulged, at their own request, with a hearty meal immediately before they were suspended on the gibbet, which was erected in the parade of the town of Kingston. From that time, until they expired, they never uttered the least complaint, except only of cold in the night, but diverted themselves all day long in discourse with their countrymen, who were permitted, very improperly, to surround the gibbet. On the morning of the eighth day one of them silently expired, as did the other on that of the ninth day.

These dreadful examples were not without their effect, though some were of opinion that it was principally owing to the co-operation of the people called Maroons, that the suppression of the revolt of 1760 was to be ascribed. Subsequent events, however, proved that judgment to be false, for these very people, a very short time afterward, began a most unprovoked war against the white inhabitants, which, however, ended in their total defeat, and the final expulsion of most of them from the island.

The year 1744 was distinguished by another destructive conflict of the elements; and in 1780, after a long respite, began that dreadful succession of hurricanes, which, with the exception of 1782 and 1783, desolated this, and some of the neighbouring islands, for seven years together. The dates of their occurrence, were as follows:

1780 hurricane	October 3.
1781 - - - - -	August 1.
1784 - - - - -	July 30.
1785 - - - - -	August 27.
1786 - - - - -	October 20.

Of the whole series of these awful visitations, the first was undoubtedly the most destructive; but in Jamaica, the sphere of its activity was chiefly confined to the western parts of the island. The large and opulent districts of Westmoreland and Hanover presented, however, such extent and variety of desolation from its effects, as are scarcely to be equalled in the records of human calamity. Westmoreland alone sustained damage to the amount of £.700,000 sterling, and Hanover nearly as much. The sad fate of Savanna la Mar (a small sea-port in the former parish) can never be remembered without horror. The sea, bursting its ancient limits, overwhelmed that unhappy town, and swept it to instant destruction, leaving not a vestige of man, beast, or habitation behind; so sudden and comprehensive was the stroke, that the catastrophe of Savanna la Mar might be considered even more terrible, in many respects, than that of Port Royal. The latter, however, was in its effects more lasting; for to this hour the ruins of that devoted town, though buried for upwards of a century beneath]

[the waves, are visible in clear weather from the boats which sail over them, presenting an awful monument or memorial of the anger of Omnipotence !

At a pacification, entered into in the year 1763, the claims of Great Britain and France to the neutral Islands of St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Vincent, and Dominica, were adjusted by a division of the spoil.

One of the causes of former contests between France and England (the claim to those islands) having been thus removed, there was certainly reason to suppose that the remembrance of recent calamities, the pressure of poverty, and the various other distresses which the war had brought on all the belligerent powers, were circumstances highly favourable to a continuance of the peace. The short experience of ten years proved the fallacy of this expectation. The martial spirit of Great Britain sickened for employment ; and pretences being wanting for directing it towards her ancient enemies, it was turned, in an evil hour, against her own subjects in N. America. Wise men foresaw and predicted that the restless and intriguing genius of France would not allow that kingdom to continue an indifferent spectator of such a contest. Accordingly, in the year 1778, she rushed into another war with England, without even affecting to have sustained the shadow of provocation ; and the consequence of her injustice, and British insanity, was the loss not only of those of the sugar islands, which had been assigned to her in 1763, but of almost all the rest, the dismemberment of the empire, and a combination of dangers from which, at one moment, dissolution seemed to be the only refuge.

The sugar islands having been captured in that war, were restored to Great Britain at the peace of 1783 ; but it was America alone who derived advantage from the contest. As the French had engaged in the war without provocation, so they retired from the field, not only without benefit, but with manifest loss. They contracted an enormous debt, to the payment of which their ordinary revenues were inadequate ; and to this circumstance, in co-operation with others, the ruin of their ancient government must be greatly attributed.

BETWEEN THE YEARS 1793 AND 1814.

Commencement of the War, 1793 — *Capture of Tobago—Unsuccessful attempt against Martinique —Resolutions of the Ministry thereon—Capture of Martinique—Capture of St. Lucia—Capture of Guadaloupe, which completes the Conquest of the French West India Colonies — Reverse of Fortune—Mortality of the Troops—Arming of the Blacks and Mulattoes — Massacre of the French Loyalists—Events relating to St. Domingo*, 1795—*Occupation by the French*, 1801—*Expedition under Le Clerk*, 1802—*Views of the French in acquiring St. Domingo—Their policy explained, with regard to this and other Islands—Provincials rally under the Standard of Ferdinand—Assistance given by Major General Carmichael, leading to the Capture of the Spanish part*, 1809—*Treaty of* 1814.

Upon the renewal of the war in 1793, the W. Indies became, as usual, the scene of military enterprize ; and Great Britain had the advantage (if an advantage it might be called) of making the first onset. On February 10, 1793, a few days only after notice had been received of the French declaration of war, directions were transmitted to Major General Cuyler, the commander in chief of the British troops in the Windward Islands, and to Sir John Laforey, who commanded in the naval department, to attempt the reduction of Tobago. As most of the proprietors in that island were English, it was supposed that an English armament would be favourably received by the inhabitants ; and the event justified this expectation. The island surrendered, without any great struggle, on the 17th of April.

This was followed by an attack on Martinique ; an enterprise of great magnitude ; for the labours and ingenuity of man had co-operated with the hand of nature, in rendering that island one of the strongest countries in the world. In 1759, it had successfully resisted a formidable British armament of 10 ships of the line, besides frigates and bomb ketches, having on board 5,800 regular troops ; and although the island surrendered three years afterwards, to a much superior force, yet the gallant and vigorous resistance which the garrison was enabled to make on that occasion, for upwards of three weeks, ought surely to have induced great caution and consideration, with regard to future expeditions against a country so amply provided, both by nature and art, with the means of defence.

In the present conjuncture the whole of the British force in the Windward Islands, was known and allowed to be, of itself, vastly inadequate to the object in view ; but such representations had been spread throughout the army, concerning the disaffection of the greater part of the inhabitants of all the French islands towards the republican]

[government, recently established on the ruins of their monarchy, as to create a very general belief, that the appearance of a British armament before the capital of Martinique would alone produce an immediate surrender. General Bruce, on whom the chief command of the British troops had devolved in the interim, was indeed assured, by a deputation from the principal planters of the island, that "a body of 800 regular troops, would be more than sufficient to overcome all possible resistance."

These representations (as the general himself informed the king's ministers) induced him, in conjunction with Admiral Gardner, to undertake the expedition; and the land forces having been embarked in the ships of war, the armament arrived off Cape Navire, June 11, 1793. On the 16th the British troops, in number 1100, made good their landing; and having been joined by a body of about 800 French royalists, took possession of a very strong post within five miles of St. Pierre, it being the general's intention to attack the two forts which defended that town. The plan, however, did not succeed; and the causes of its failure may best be told in the general's own words: "The morning of the 18th (he observes) was the time fixed for the attack, and we were to move forward in two columns, the one consisting of the British troops, the other of the French Royalists; and for this purpose, the troops were put in motion before day break; but unfortunately, some alarm having taken place amongst the royalists, they began, in a mistake, firing on one another, and their commander being severely wounded on the occasion, his troops were disconcerted, and instantly retired to the post from which they marched. This conduct (continues the general) strongly proved that no dependance could be placed on the royalists, and that the attack against St. Pierre, must have been carried on solely by the British troops, to which their numbers were not equal. They were therefore ordered to return to their former posts, from whence they re-embarked," &c.

This is the whole, or nearly the whole, of what the British administration thought proper to furnish for the gratification of the public curiosity, concerning the conduct and failure of this unfortunate expedition; and indeed it is sufficient to demonstrate, that the strong assurances which had been given, and the sanguine expectations which had been formed, of support and assistance from the greater part of the French inhabitants, consisting in the whole of upwards of 10,000 whites, were not justified by the event. It reflects, therefore, great honour on the liberal and humane disposition of the British commanders, that they did not suffer the disappointment, which they must have felt on this occasion, to operate to the disadvantage of those of the French planters, by whom such assurances were held forth; and who, though mistaken as to their countrymen, manifested the sincerity of their own professions by their subsequent conduct. "As they would certainly have fallen victims," observes General Bruce, "to the implacable malignity of the republican party, as soon as we quitted the island, it became in a manner incumbent on us, in support of the national character, to use our utmost exertions to bring these unhappy people from the shore; and although the necessity of impressing such vessels as could be found, and the purchasing provisions from the merchant vessels, will incur a great expense, I have nevertheless ventured upon it, trusting for my justification to the generous and humane disposition exhibited by the British nation on similar occasions. We were therefore employed in embarking these people, from the 19th to the 21st," &c. &c.

Notwithstanding this discouraging account, the British ministers, on receiving intelligence of General Bruce's miscarriage, considered themselves imperiously called upon to vindicate the honour of the English arms, by enterprises of greater magnitude in the same quarter. They resolved to send thither, forthwith, such an armament as, in addition to the British force already in the W. Indies, should be sufficient not only for the conquest of Martinique, but even "to dislodge the enemy from every one of their possessions in that part of the world:" such was their declaration. Every man who is acquainted with the relative situation of the French and British colonies in those islands, the condition of each, and their affinity to each other, will allow that, in this case, there was no medium, and that their determination was founded in sound policy.

It must likewise be admitted, that the preparations which the ministers caused to be made, in consequence of this determination, corresponded to the magnitude and extent of their views. Orders were issued for the immediate embarkation of 14 regiments of infantry, consisting of near 11,000 men; a fleet composed of four first-rate ships of war and nine frigates, besides sloops, bomb ketches, and transports, was appointed to convey them to the scene of action, and act in conjunction with them. And that no possible doubt might arise in the public mind, concerning]

[the judicious application of this great armament to its proper object, the whole was placed under the direction of two of the most distinguished officers which any age or nation has produced; the chief command being assigned to Sir Charles Grey, general of the land forces, and the naval department to Vice-admiral Sir John Jervis. Neither must it pass unobserved, in justice to the different public offices of this kingdom, that the whole was ready for its departure in less than three months after the receipt of General Bruce's dispatches; but by a subsequent order 4,600 of the troops, that had been placed under the orders of the general, were deputed to another service.

On the 26th of November, 1793, the armament, thus reduced, sailed from St. Helen's; and on January 6, 1794, the squadron cast anchor in Carlisle Bay, in the island of Barbadoes: it was afterwards reinforced by the Asia, of 64 guns, and some additional frigates.

After a month's stay at Barbadoes (an interval which was usefully employed in preparing gunboats, in training the seamen for land service, and in attendance on the sick) the squadron sailed for the attack of Martinique; having on board, of land forces (including a detachment of negro dragoons) 6,085 effective men.

On Wednesday, February 5, 1794, the fleet approached the *s. e.* coast of that island, and the general (having previously made the necessary arrangements with Sir John Jervis) divided the army into three detachments, with a view to land them at three separate and distinct quarters. These were Gallion Bay on the *n.* coast, Case de Navires, nearly opposite, on the *s.*, and Trois Rivieres towards the *s. e.* The first detachment was commanded by Major general Dundas, the second by Colonel Sir Charles Gordon, and the third by the general himself, assisted by Lieutenant-General Prescott. The measure was well concerted; for, by inducing the enemy to divide his force, it enabled the British to effect their landing, at each place, with very little loss.

By the 16th, the army, after a succession of valiant conflicts, had arrived within two leagues of St. Pierre, from whence, at day-break, the enemy sent a flag, requiring three days to consider of a capitulation. The Major-General returned for answer, that instead of three days he would allow them only three hours; and, leaving a company of grenadiers in possession of Bellevieur, he immediately moved on towards St. Pierre. At this juncture, the detachment of the squadron arrived in the bay, and began their operations. Colonel Symes, with the troops and seamen who were to land with him, had, previous to their entering the bay, embarked on board the Zebra and Nautilus sloops, which, drawing little water, could land them without difficulty. In the evening of the 16th, these vessels approached the *n.* part of the bay, the other men of war standing in to cover them from the fire of the enemy. Captain Hervey, in the Santa Margarita, perceiving the troops were likely to be much annoyed by two batteries with heated shot, steered close under the guns of the most considerable of them, and effectually silenced it. About four in the morning of the 17th, the troops made good their landing, and immediately advanced towards St. Pierre; but the conflict was at an end, for the enemy seeing the British approach both by sea and by land, evacuated the town, leaving their colours flying, which were immediately hauled down, and the British colours placed in their room. By ten o'clock the whole of Colonel Symes's detachment had marched into the town, and were soon afterwards joined by General Dundas and his army.

No injury was done, nor outrage offered, to the inhabitants; the women and children sat at their doors to see the soldiers march in, as peaceably and cheerfully as the inhabitants of an English village behold a regiment pass through their streets. One instance only occurred, an attempt to pillage; for which the offender was immediately hung up by the Provost Marshal, at the gate of the Jesuits College.

The town of St. Pierre being thus captured, and many important posts in different parts of the country already in possession of the British troops, it might have been supposed that the surrender of the island was speedily to have followed; but so great was the natural and artificial strength of the country, and so obstinately was it defended on this occasion by the inhabitants, that much remained to be done before this event took place. The two great forts of Bourbon and Fort Royal (the former commanded by Rochambeau the governor of the island), were still to be conquered; and it was impossible closely to invest Fort Bourbon, without first possessing the heights of Surié or Sourier, a situation eminently strong and difficult, and defended by a large body of the enemy, under the command of the mulatto General Bellegarde. The commander-in-chief therefore proposed to attack this post from his camp at Bruneau, on the night of the 18th, and to depend for success solely on a vigorous use of the bayonet; but, a few hours previous to the time he had fixed]

[for the enterprise, Bellegarde himself, with part of his troops, descended the heights, and attacked the general's left. His intention was, if possible, to cut off the communication between the British army and navy. The attempt was bold, but it was ruinous. The general immediately perceived the advantage to be derived from it, and seized it in the moment; for, directing Lieutenant-General Prescott to keep the enemy in check, he ordered from his right Lieutenant-Colonel Buckeridge, with the third battalion of grenadiers, and Lieutenant-Colonels Coote and Blundell, with the first and second battalions of light infantry, to attack Bellegarde's camp on the left. In this service this detachment displayed such spirit and impetuosity as proved irresistible; and possession being taken of Bellegarde's camp, his own cannon were turned against him. This unfortunate man and his second in command, with about 300 of their followers, surrendered themselves to the general a few days afterwards, the two leaders desiring to be sent to N. America, on condition of never serving against his majesty; and in this request they were gratified. Their followers were sent on board the king's ships as prisoners of war.

From February 20, Forts Bourbon and Louis, with the town of Fort Royal, were completely invested, and the general was busily employed in erecting batteries on his first parallel. On March 17, the general concerted measures with the admiral for a combined assault, by the naval and land forces, upon the fort and town of Fort Royal. Scaling ladders being provided, and the necessary arrangements settled, the ships destined for the service took their stations on the morning of March 20. The Asia and the Zebra sloop, with Captain Rogers and a body of seamen in flat boats, (the whole under the command of Commodore Thompson) composed the naval force; the land force consisted of the first battalion of grenadiers, the first and third light infantry, with the third grenadiers.

The success of this expedition was owing to the gallantry of Captain Faulkner of the Zebra, who perceiving that he could not expect any assistance from the Asia, (a ship of the line) on account of the shoals, determined to undertake the service alone in his small sloop of 16 guns, and he executed this design with matchless intrepidity and good conduct; for running the Zebra close to the walls, and leaping overboard at the head of his sloop's company, he scaled the ramparts, and drove the enemy from the fort. "No language of mine (says Admiral Jervis) can express the merit of Captain Faulkner on this occasion; but as every man in the army and squadron bears testimony to it, this incomparable action cannot fail of being recorded in the page of history." Colonel Symes, in the same triumphant moment, entered and took possession of the town.

This signal success determined the fate of the island; for General Rochambeau, perceiving that all was lost, immediately sent a flag from Fort Bourbon, offering to surrender on capitulation. The terms were accordingly adjusted on the 23d, and on the 25th, the garrison, reduced to 900 men, marched out prisoners of war. To the gallantry with which this fortress was defended, General Grey bore an honourable testimony, by observing, that "the British troops, on entering the place, could scarcely find an inch of ground which had not been touched by their shot or their shells."

Thus was achieved the conquest of Martinique, with the loss on the part of the British of 71 men killed, 193 wounded, and of three that were missing.

Victory having thus far crowned the British arms, General Grey determined, without loss of time, to persevere in his career of glory; wherefore, leaving five regiments under the command of General Prescott for the protection of Martinique, he and the brave admiral proceeded, on the morning of March 31, to the attack of St. Lucia. This island had not the means of a formidable defence; and on April 4, his Royal Highness Prince Edward, after a fatiguing march of 14 hours from the landing place, hoisted the British colours on its chief fortress Morne Fortuné; the garrison, consisting of 300 men, having surrendered on the same terms of capitulation as those that had been granted to General Rochambeau. Ricard, the officer commanding in St. Lucia, desired and obtained permission, as Rochambeau had done before him, to embark for N. America; but the garrisons of both, of St. Lucia and Martinique, were sent to France immediately on their surrender.

After the completion of this service, General Grey, having left the sixth and ninth regiments, with detachments of artillery and engineers, as a garrison for St. Lucia, and appointed Sir Charles Gordon governor of that island, returned to Martinique; and the spirit of enterprise among the soldiers being thus kept alive and encouraged, the general turned his attention, in the next place, to the large and fertile colony of Guadaloupe.]

[It is necessary the reader should be apprized in this place, that Guadaloupe consists, in fact, of two islands, divided from each other by a narrow arm of the sea, called La Riviere Salee, (Salt River) which is navigable for vessels of 50 tons; the *e.* island, or division, being called Grande Terre, and the *w.* Basse Terre. Adjoining the former, is a small island called Desirade, and near to the latter a cluster of little islands called Les Saintes. At some distance from these, towards the *e.*, is another island called Marie Galante; all these were dependencies on Guadaloupe, and comprised in its government.

On Tuesday, April 8, such of the troops as remained after the necessary garrisons for the conquered islands were formed, embarked in transports, and the fleet sailed from the Bay of Fort Royal. A detachment of the squadron having been sent, in the first place, to attack the little islands above mentioned, called Les Saintes, that service was executed with much spirit and gallantry by a party of seamen and marines; and about noon on the 10th, the Boyne and Veteran cast anchor in the Bay of Point a Petre, in the division of Grande Terre; a fresh wind and lee current preventing many of the transports from getting in until the day following.

Without waiting however for the arrival of all the troops, the general effected the landing of a considerable detachment, with the addition of 500 marines at Grosier Bay, at one o'clock in the morning of the 11th, under cover of the Winchelsea man of war, the captain of which, Lord Viscount Garlies, being the only person that was wounded on the occasion. "He received a bad contusion (observes Admiral Jervis) from the fire of a battery against which he had placed his ship, in the good old way, within half musket shot." The battery however was soon silenced, and, early on the morning of the 12th, the fort of La Fleur d'Epée was carried by assault, and the greatest part of the garrison put to the sword. Port St. Louis, the town of Point a Petre, and the new battery upon Islet a Cochon being afterwards abandoned, and the inhabitants flying in all directions, the possession of Grande Terre was complete.

The reduction of Basse Terre was effected the 21st of the same month; for the strong post of Palmiste being carried by the gallantry of Prince Edward and Colonel Symes, and that of Houelmont by Major-General Dundas, the French governor (Collot) immediately capitulated; surrendering the whole of Guadaloupe and all its dependencies to the king of Great Britain, on the same terms that were allowed to Rochambeau at Martinique, and Ricard at Lucia. It is pleasing to add, that this conquest was happily effected with the loss, on the part of the British, of only 17 men killed and about 50 wounded.

This gallant and successful enterprise completed the entire conquest of the French possessions in the W. Indian Islands; and the primary views and declarations of the British ministers were thus wonderfully realized by British energy and valour. Happy if the scene had shut at this period, and no envious cloud overcast the close of a campaign, the opening and progress of which had shone with so bright a lustre in the eyes of all Europe!

But now it was that the measure of reducing the army at the outset of the expedition began to manifest those unhappy consequences, which it was then predicted would ensue from it. In allotting garrisons for the security of the several islands which had surrendered, the deficiency of troops for that purpose was at once obvious and alarming. It was discovered that the mortality had been so great (more from sickness, the never-failing effect of extraordinary exertion in tropical climates, than the sword of the enemy) as to have reduced the ranks to nearly one half their original numbers; and of the troops which remained alive, a very large proportion were so worn down by unremitting fatigue, as to be rendered absolutely incapable of efficient service. Unfortunately the numerous enterprises in which the British forces were engaged, and especially the fatal, and never-enough to be lamented, attempt on St. Domingo, left it not in the power of the king's ministers to send such a reinforcement to the Windward Islands as the occasion required.

So early however as March 22, four regiments, consisting of 2,377 men, had sailed from Cork for Barbadoes. They were intended, indeed, for St. Domingo; but authority was given to General Sir Charles Grey to detain two of them, if circumstances should render it necessary, to serve under his own command in the Windward Islands.

These regiments arrived at Barbadoes May 5, and the general detained the eight battalion companies of the 35th, one of the four regiments; but, observing the extreme anxiety which the British minister expressed in his dispatches for prosecuting the enterprise against St. Domingo, and trusting (as he writes) "that effectual care would be taken at home to prevent the enemy, in the conquered islands, receiving assistance from Europe," he replaced those battalion companies with eight flank companies from his own]

[army, which was thus rather diminished than augmented by the exchange.

From this period the tide, which had hitherto flowed with so rapid and prosperous a current, began to run in a contrary direction. The sickness which had for some time prevailed in the army, was become exasperated to pestilence. The troops sunk under it in great numbers, and among its most distinguished victims was Major-General Dundas, the governor of Guadaloupe. On June 4, the commander-in-chief (being at that time with the admiral, inspecting the state of St. Christopher's) received the melancholy account of this gallant officer's death; and early on the morning of the 5th further intelligence arrived, which rendered his loss at that juncture doubly afflicting. This was nothing less than the very unexpected information that a French armament of considerable force was, at that moment, off Point a Petre!

On receipt of this intelligence, the admiral made immediate sail for Guadaloupe, and arrived there on the afternoon of the 7th, and having put the commander-in-chief ashore at Basse Terre, he proceeded with the ships to Point a Petre; but found that the enemy had not only made good their landing, but had also forced Fort Fleur d'Epée on the preceding day, and were actually in possession of the town, and the forts by which it was defended. They had likewise secured their shipping at safe anchorage in the harbour. It was now discovered that this armament, which had sailed from Rochfort April 25, consisted of two frigates, a corvette, two large ships armed *en flute*, and two other vessels, having brought with them 1500 regular troops.

The success of the French on this occasion was the more surprising, as there was at this time in Guadaloupe a larger proportion of British troops than in either of the other conquered islands: it is asserted by a respectable author, the Rev. Cooper Willyams, chaplain to the Boyne, who collected his observations on the scene of action, that the progress of the enemy was greatly accelerated by the misconduct of several of the French royalists then in the fort, a party of whom (misinformed perhaps as to the real number of the invaders) offered their services to sally on the besiegers, and marched out for that purpose, under the command of Captain M'Dowall of the 43d, but on approaching the enemy they were panic struck, and deserted to the town. Thirty of them only out of 140 returned to Fleur d'Epée with Captain M'Dowall. The British merchants and sailors from the town of Point a Petre, had thrown themselves into this fort to co-operate with the garrison. This little band, under the command of Lieut. Colonel Drummond, of the 43d regiment, did all that gallant men could do; twice they repulsed the assailants; but the French royalists who remained in the fort, conceiving the vain hope of obtaining mercy for themselves by a surrender, insisted at length that the gates should be thrown open. This was no sooner done, than the enemy poured in from all sides, and the few surviving British soldiers (not more than 40 in number) were obliged to make the best retreat they could to Fort Louis. This place not being tenable after the loss of Fleur d'Epée, was soon abandoned by them, and they crossed over to Basse Terre.

The commander in chief, the moment the strength of the enemy was ascertained, had transmitted orders to the commanders in the different islands to send from thence whatever force could be spared; and the legislature of St. Christopher, immediately on receiving notice of the enemy's appearance, raised a considerable body of volunteers at the expense of the colony, and dispatched them, with great expedition, to co-operate in this important service.

All the force that could be thus obtained, being at length collected at Basse Terre, detachments were landed on the side of Fort Fleur d'Epée, and many skirmishes took place with the enemy, between the 19th of June and the beginning of July, the particulars of which it is not necessary to relate. The weather was now become insupportably hot, and the tropical rains being already set in, the General determined to make an effort to finish the campaign at a blow. It was planned that a large body of troops, under Brigadier General Symes, should march during the night, and make themselves masters of Morne government, and the other commanding heights round the town of Point a Petre; the General himself, at the head of the rest of his army remaining in readiness on the heights of Mascot, to storm Fort Fleur d'Epée, on receiving a signal from the brigadier: the failure of this enterprize was a fatal circumstance; and many animadversions having been made on the conduct of it, we shall recite the particulars in General Grey's own words: 'On the evening of the 1st instant, Brigadier-General Symes marched from Morne Mascot with the 1st battalion of grenadiers, the 1st and 2d battalions of light infantry, and the 1st battalion of seamen commanded by Captain Robertson, to attack the town of Point a Petre before day-break on the 2d instant; but]

[being misled by their guides, the troops entered the town at the part where they were most exposed to the enemy's cannon and small arms, and where it was not possible to scale the walls of the fort; in consequence of which, they suffered considerably from round and grape shot, together with small arms fired from the houses, &c. and a retreat became unavoidable.'

The meditated attack on Fort Fleur d'Epée, being thus rendered abortive, and the British troops so reduced or debilitated as to be absolutely unfit for further exertion, (exposed as they were to the sun and the rains) it was resolved, at a consultation held on the 3d, between the commander in chief and the admiral, to relinquish all further attempts for the present on Grand Terre; and to remove the artillery and stores, and to reinforce, with the troops, the posts in Basse Terre. This determination, dictated by a necessity which left no alternative, was carried into effect, without loss, on the night of the 5th. 'I now,' said the General in his letter of the 8th, 'occupy, with my whole force, the ground between St. John's Point and Bay Mahault, and having erected batteries with 24 pounders, and mortar batteries, at Point Saron and Point St. John, opposite to the town of Point a Petre, my situation gives perfect security to Basse Terre.'

Many arrangements, however, were yet to be made for the maintenance of this position during the approaching hurricane months, and until a reinforcement should arrive from Great Britain. These being at length completed, the General embarked on board the Boyne, and sailed for St. Pierre in the island of Martinique, where he established his head quarters, leaving Brigadier Graham to command in his absence at Basse Terre.

The head-quarters of the British army in Guadaloupe were at camp Berville, which was placed on commanding ground; flanked by the sea on one side, and on the other by an impassable morass. About a mile on the rear was a narrow pass, by which alone the camp could be approached, and in front was the river Sallée, on the furthermost banks of which stands the town of Point a Petre; but the situation of this encampment, so favourable in other respects, proved to be, in the highest degree, unhealthful. The baneful effects of the climate at this season of the year were aggravated by putrid exhalations from the neighbouring swamps, and a dreadful mortality ensued among the troops. By the middle of August, the numbers on the sick list constituted the majority of the camp. During the month of September, the army was inadequate to the supply of guards for the different batteries. Several companies could not produce a single man fit for duty; and the 43d regiment could not even afford a corporal and three men, for the protection of their own camp in the night.

In order, therefore, to keep up the appearance of force in front of the enemy, the different islands were completely drained of troops, and a body of French loyalists were selected to perform military duty at the post of Gabarre; where they conducted themselves with much spirit and fidelity.

The commissioner from the French convention, and afterwards commander in chief of the French troops in Guadaloupe, was Victor Hugues, a man not deficient either in courage or capacity, but notorious for his cruelty. Observing how severely his own troops, as well as the British, suffered from the climate, he conceived the project of arming in his service, as many blacks and mulattoes as he could collect. These men, inured to the climate, and having nothing to lose, flocked to his standard in great numbers, and were soon brought into some degree of order and discipline. With the co-operation of these auxiliaries, apprized at the same time of the debilitated state of the British army, the French commissioner determined to attack the British camp at Berville. For this purpose, on Saturday, the 26th of September, he embarked a large body of troops in small vessels, which passing the British ships of war unperceived, under cover of a dark night, made good their landing in two detachments; the one at Goyave, the other at Bay Mahault. The detachment which took possession of the place last-mentioned, immediately marched to Gabarre, in the view of surrounding the French royalists stationed there, and it was with great difficulty that they escaped to Berville. The other detachment which had landed at Goyave, began its march to Petit Bourg. Lieut. Colonel Drummond, of the 43d regiment, with some convalescents from the hospital, and a party of royalists, advanced to meet them, but perceiving their great superiority, found it advisable to retreat; and they took post at a battery upon the shore, called Point Bacchus, where however they were soon surrounded, and the whole party made prisoners. By the possession of this post, the enemy entirely cut off all communication between the British camp and shipping. They then proceeded to possess themselves of the neighbouring heights, and formed a]

[junction with the other detachment which had landed at Bay Mahault: by this means the camp at Berville was completely invested by land; its whole strength, including the sick and convalescent, consisted of no more than 250 regular troops, and 300 hundred royalists. All that courage, perseverance, and despair, could effect, was performed by the united exertions of this gallant band. In the first attack on the morning of the 29th, after a conflict of three hours, the Republicans were defeated with great loss. They were again repulsed in two subsequent attacks, on the 30th of the same month and the 4th of October. But their numbers continually increasing, and the manifest impossibility of opening a communication with the British fleet, depriving the garrison of all proper succour, General Graham, on the representation of his officers, consented on the 6th of October to send a flag to the French commissioner, offering to capitulate. Towards the British, the terms granted by the enemy were sufficiently liberal, but the condition demanded for the French royalists, that they should be treated as British subjects, was declared inadmissible; all the favour that could be obtained for them, was the sanction of a covered boat, in which 25 of their officers escaped to the Boyne. The rest of the miserable royalists, upwards of 300 in number, were left a sacrifice to the vengeance of their republican enemies. Finding themselves excluded from the capitulation, they solicited permission to endeavour to cut their way through the enemy, an attempt which must have ended only in the destruction both of themselves and the British. There was a faint hope entertained, however, that Victor Hugues (whose character was not at that time sufficiently developed) would relent on their surrender. In this expectation, however, these unfortunate people were cruelly disappointed, and their sad fate cannot be recorded without indignation and horror. The Republicans erected a guillotine, with which they struck off the heads of 50 of them in the short space of an hour. This mode of proceeding, however, proving too tedious for their impatient revenge; the remainder of these unhappy men were fettered to each other, and placed on the brink of one of the trenches which they had so gallantly defended: the Republicans then drew up some of their undisciplined recruits in front, who firing an irregular volley at their miserable victims, killed some and wounded others; leaving many, in all probability, untouched: the weight however of the former dragged the rest into the ditch, where the living, the wounded, and the dead, shared the same grave; the soil being instantly thrown in upon them.

Thus was the whole of this fertile country (the single fortress of Matilda excepted) restored to the power of France, and placed under the domination of a revengeful and remorseless democracy. General Prescott, who commanded the Matilda Fort, sustained a long and most harassing siege, from the 14th of October to the 10th of December. His conduct throughout, as well as that of the officers and men under his command, was above all praise. He maintained his position until the fort was no longer tenable, and having no other means of saving his reduced and exhausted garrison from the sword, he was obliged at length to abandon it by silent evacuation. Three line of battle ships had indeed arrived in the interim from Great Britain, but they came only to behold the triumph of the enemy. With this adverse stroke of fortune, closed the campaign of 1794: its career for a while was glorious beyond example, and if the very unhappy measure of reducing the number of the troops at the outset had not taken effect, or if, as soon as the news of the capture of Martinique had reached England, a strong reinforcement had been sent to the scene of action, it cannot be doubted that Guadaloupe would not, with the other islands that followed its fate, have been forfeited by the English.

It will here be necesssry to refer to the concomitant events that were taking place at this period in St. Domingo. To enter on the details of the revolutions of the French part, were to burden the narrative with a recital of gloomy occurrences, still fresh in the memories of most persons: and, indeed, a tolerably diffuse account of them have been already given under the article St. Domingo.

In the year 1794, the British armies being entirely engaged in St. Domingo, succeeded, after severe struggles, in which they lost infinitely more by the climate than by war, in achieving the conquest of Port au Prince. This event, brought about by the skill and intrepidity of General Whyte, proved not less profitable than honourable to such of the officers and soldiers by whom it was effected, as lived to enjoy the fruits of their victory; for there were captured in the harbour, 22 topsail vessels, fully laden with sugar, indigo, and coffee, of which 13 were from 3 to 500 hundred tons burthen, and the remaining 9 from 150 to 300 tons, besides 7,000 tons of shipping in ballast; the value of all which, at a moderate com-]

putation, could not be far short of £.400,000 sterling.

The island was, however, in too disturbed a state to induce the British government to follow up this success. Indeed they had rather cause for relinquishing it, owing to some defeats that almost immediately ensued, and from the increasing and irremediable mortality of the forces; but the formal renunciation of all their title to possession was not made till 1806. The French were not, however, so easily induced to relinquish the footing they had gained; through their perseverance the island was doomed to be the prey of deep intrigues and aggravated misfortunes. The value of the *w.* part of it was too well known not to make the possession of the whole an object of solicitation with a power less ambitious than France. The same grasping policy that dictated the stipulations of 1795, accompanied all the three changes that have given other names to that French government, without altering its entity or revolutionary and destructive system.

The first public instance of their profound designs, was evinced in the exchange of Louisiana for the duchy of Parma, which at all times was in their power to regain. This measure was naturally followed by that long concerted plan, so much dwelt upon by their best authors, and relished by their ministers, under the *ancien régime*, of depriving the Spaniards of Hispañola.

As early as 1795 it was carried into execution, forming part of the disgraceful treaty made at Basle in Switzerland, which gave the minister Godoy the title of Prince of the Peace, and served to consolidate the empire and influence which he afterwards attained, and formed the first link of that fatal chain of events, which has since brought his country to her present awful state of anarchy and confusion.

By this instrument of diplomatic intrigue and subtlety, Hispañola was made over unreservedly to France; the oldest subjects of the Spanish crown, in the *w.* world, were thus bartered, like so many sheep, and an island, not the capture of an enemy during war, and given up at its termination, but one that had descended to them as a primitive right, and had formed the glory of the preceding monarchs, who saw it discovered and settled. When possession was given, in further aggravation of the Spanish natives, the transfer was received by Toussaint, at the head of the intrusive settlers of one division of the island, with whom the former had previously and generously shared their territory; in short, by a horde of emancipated slaves, to whom the French republic had given equality, consistence, and power, and who now came to erect a new standard on the spot consecrated by the labours and ashes of Columbus, and long revered as an object of national pride.

In justice to the Dominican people it may be said, that none of the Spanish settlements possess more of that *amor patriæ* which ought to distinguish loyal subjects; they received the news as a thunderbolt, and the country presented an universal scence of lamentation.

The nuns, friars, and clergy, left their convents, churches, and abodes; emigration became general, near one-third of the population went over to the Main, to Cuba, and to Puerto Rico, in search of their own laws, and their own flag.

It was not, however, till the latter end of 1801 that legal delivery was made to the representative of the French nation, Toussaint L'Ouverture, who came with a considerable force, to repel the resistance he expected to meet on the part of the Spanish people; which opposing spirit would have yet secured the country, had not Don Joachim Garcia, the then governor, refused arms, and counteracted every thing that could militate against the orders he had received from his master. The entry of the Black General was not, however, marked by any act inconsistent with justice and decorum; the property of individuals, and of the church, was respected. When he retired to his own government in the French part, his brother Paul was placed in command, and continued till January, 1803.

The government of France had scarcely signed the treaty of Amiens, when the expatriated planters and traders to St. Domingo, to second their own views, set on foot plans, and devised means to turn into their wonted channel, the great resources of their settlements in this island. The ambitious consul of France, who at that time sought popularity, joined in the public voice; being well aware that inaction did not suit the restless and turbulent spirit of the French, and impressed with the sanguine assurance of success, he thought this a fit time to rid himself of many individuals whom he mistrusted, and of a part of his armies, who from being commanded by other more favourite officers, were not so much under his own individual controul as he could wish.

The expedition at length sailed, in December, 1802, the military amounting to 35,000 men, under the command of General Le Clerk, his]

[brother-in-law, accompanied by his sister and younger brother Jerome, to whom this conquest was intended as a schooling. The shipping was under the guidance of Admiral Villaret, rendezvousing in the Bay of Samaná; the branch of the armament intended to take possession of Santo Domingo, amounting, in military, to 700 men, under Kierversan, who was nominated governor, sailed round to the *s.* side, and anchoring in a small bay to windward, sent to sound the state of the town.

Paul Toussaint, who was unprepared for this supercession by any instructions from his brother, felt disposed to resist. But the Black garrison, being weak and scattered, and the numbers of the invading force exaggerated, a Spanish party was formed, which, though disarmed of every weapon but their manchetes, in the night took possession, on a preconcerted plan with the shipping, of the yellow battery at the *w.* end of the ramparts, and covered the landing of the French. Thus was the city given up, with the loss of only three lives, the Blacks returned to their own lines, and the tricoloured flag was planted on its battlements, by the Whites.

It is, however, foreign to our purpose to enter into any further particulars respecting this grand expedition to Haiti, which cost the Republic upwards of 50,000 lives, and immense treasures, the recency of occurrences superseding the necessity of further remarks. Suffice it to say, that it proved in every way abortive, and that, disgraced as it was, by the most atrocious act of duplicity to the great and unfortunate Toussaint, it has not failed to impress the natives with a very unfavourable impression of the sincerity of that regime.

On the general defeat and evacuation of the French troops sent out under Le Clerk, General Ferrand, who had been left by Rochambeau in command of Monte Christi, with 200 men, withdrew to the city of Santo Domingo, formed a powerful party, dispossessed Kierversau, who was an older officer, and under the immediate nomination of his government at home, shipped him away, and vested in himself the entire control. This piece of usurpation, so much opposed to strict discipline, and to the great deference expected from subalterns, was never obliterated from the breast of his despotic ruler, until after his gallant defence of the capital against Dessalines, though his services were only then rewarded by the member's cross of the Legion d'Honneur, notwithstanding that his military rank comported to that of commandant of the same order.

The definitive organization of this country was, by imperial decree, postponed until peace, and in the mean time Ferrand was made commander in chief and administrator general, which charge he held till the 7th of November, 1809, when he was defeated at Seibo by the Spaniards, and obliged to fly, and finding himself hard pressed, his horse tired, and unable to regain the gates of the capital, from which he was at a distance of 12 leagues, he shot himself with a pistol through the head, in order to avoid falling into the hands of the provincialists, whose merited vengeance he dreaded.

The strong hold of Santo Domingo, on account of its locality and territorial productions, which were eventually anticipated in its tenure, was considered as a rallying spot whenever the French should make advances on Haiti, or direct their views towards the more attractive shores of the Spanish main. They valued this fortress as a deposit for their heavy baggage, a secure means of supplying their armies with provisions, and in the mean time of directing their plans of espionage; and from the year 1804 till the time of its capture, in consequence of the existing state of war, though five millions of livres were annually allowed, which, added to its local revenue, defrayed the expense of the island, they considered it trivial, compared with the projected advantages they hoped to realize.

They saw that from among the frugal well-seasoned natives of Hispañola, they could obtain soldiers capable of bearing the fatigue and heat of the climate, of following the Haitian to his inmost recesses, of tracing him to the summit of a mountain, of ferreting him in the fastnesses of his retreat, and hunting him in the almost untrodden wild, for it was early evident that it formed part of the policy and plans of these people, to flee to the mountains, if their towns were attacked; of this the French were well aware, and did not dislike it, since to them it gave the advantage of meeting their enemy collectively, in the interior, where the climate was best, a desirable object, when once they had obtained the proper men, which the ground and mode of warfare required.

In order to form an army of 8,000 or 10,000 men, qualified to fight their enemy in their own way, it only became necessary to provide officers and arms, so that as early as 1805, all those who had survived the disasters of Le Clerk's expedi-[

[tion, and had fled to the neighbouring islands, were ordered to rendezvous and hold themselves in readiness in Santo Domingo, by which means, even at the time of the late capitulation, the officers, compared to the privates, were as one is to twelve. To give greater spread to that influence which they wished to extend over the Spanish inhabitants of the country, French officers were suffered and encouraged to intermarry with the natives, though refused all alliance with their own creoles.

Notwithstanding that the cession of the island to the French, guaranteed the tenure of all property to its former holders, no sooner were they well established, than edicts were issued to invite the absentees to return, under threats of a general sequestration, and on the expiration of the time prescribed, the menace was carried into rigid execution. Near 500 of the houses, estates, and *hatos*, or pasture grounds with herds, were put on the cadastre of sequestration; for, as we have already observed, the rich and powerful had withdrawn, and the menace proclaimed, could not induce them to abandon their first patriotic resolves. By other decrees it became illegal for absentees to dispose of property by powers of attorney, or to draw any thing from their estates. These, together with the sequestrated houses, were let out to officers and favourites, and the surplus of them by the public cryer annually; the grazing grounds were depopulated and laid waste, the dwellings suffered to decay, the negroes sent to other islands to be sold, the church plate melted down, and the poor Spaniard bent under the rod of oppression. The emigrants were thus left to protract a miserable existence in other settlements, were declared out of the protection of the law, whilst many of their best families lived on the small pittance they could collect from charity. We may judge then of the feelings of this unhappy people, when, by the aid and protection of the British nation, they were restored to their country and estates; and again saw themselves in possession of their long deserted homes. Te Deums were sung in the different towns of the Main, Puerto Rico, and Cuba, where the poor emigrants were collected, in commemoration of success, and the name of George the Third of England, was united to that of the presiding deity of conquest.

The plans of the cabinet of Paris, respecting the W. Indies, were not altogether confined to that division of Hispañola, of which they gained possession. In the early stage of horrors and revolutions that devastated the part which the French originally held, the inhabitants fleeing from the sword of rebellion and vengeance, sought refuge in the neighbouring and opposite island of Cuba, and particularly centered in St. Jago and Baracoa. Upwards of 40,000 whites, persons of colour, and negroes, were at length collected; and, having been stripped of their wealth by their own revolted slaves, now aiming at independence, some of them turned their attention to the planting of coffee, and other branches of culture, and the rest to privateering and carrying on a predatory war in the island passages. Many rich vessels fell a prey to their activity, and fast sailing cruizers, even whole convoys have been distressed by them; and amongst them their most valuable captures, were several guineamen. The slaves were sold to their own planters, who had often shares in the equipments. Their habitual industry soon changed the face of the country; many were already in possession of 2 and 300 Blacks, which raised the country to a state of affluence, consistency, and power, which it had never before attained in the hands of the Spaniards.

Though so well settled, they were ever restless and devising plots, and drew up in a body long memorials which were transmitted to the Emperor, soliciting that half of the island of Cuba, by a line drawn from Trinidad to Baracoa, might be ceded and confirmed in the right of the French, together with the whole of Puerto Rico, where others of their settlers had also formed establishments. Active agents were sent to Paris, provided with funds raised from the subscriptions of both parties, who were directed to make the obtaining of this cession a common cause. That this project was relished by the French ministers is beyond doubt, but how far it was in reality followed up is uncertain; yet on the authority of their agents, it was announced in the Bulletin of Santo Domingo, and several other official papers, that the cession had actually been agreed upon, and carried into effect by the two governments, and on the strength of it, fresh lands had been purchased. In this way did they seek to repay the hospitality of the Spaniards, who received them cordially in distress, and allowed them to buy lands and settle amongst them, though the French had often exposed the national honour of the island, by the excesses their privateers committed on their coasts.

No sooner had the national wrongs of the Peninsula in Europe began to spread abroad in]

[Cuba, than the French took alarm at the patriotic feelings testified by the W. Indian Spaniards, and fearing for their property and personal safety, they assembled at Candelaria, near St. Jago, to oppose their being sent *en masse* from the island, armed their negroes, and prepared to deluge in blood, the country that had so lately received them with open arms. Their plans were, however, discovered in time, their party proved weak, and they were obliged to quit the country in shame and disgrace, but under the most bitter imprecations of vengeance, most of them retiring to Louisiana.

Seeing themselves thus obliged to leave this quarter, their first project was to form a lodgement on the *n.* side of Hispañola, and penetrate to the capital of Santo Domingo, which yet held out; had they effected this, scenes of horror must have followed, and it might afterwards have cost many valuable lives to dispossess them.

No sooner had the abdication of the King of Spain taken place at Bayonne, than Joseph, assuming his royal robes, sent out new constitutions, regulations, and orders, which, together with his own likeness, were purposely distributed round; but being received at the Havannah, they were thrown down into the court-yard of the government-house, in presence of the Cabildo and officers assembled on the occasion, and there burnt by the public executioner, and the proceedings put on record; an example that has since been followed in Mexico, and other provinces of the Spanish Main.

As early as the month of October, the occurrences in Spain began to be known in Hispañola, the provincials assembled in the *e.* end, under Don Juan Sanchez Ramerez, to assert the trampled rights of their beloved Ferdinand, and dislodge the standard of wrong and perfidy that yet insulted the country. Their first outset was crowned by the defeat of the French general, who sallied out against them; the cause spread, and every sentiment was responsive to the feelings of their injured countrymen in Europe, in addition to their own local wrongs. But when they came regularly to attack, without arms, artillery, or officers, the walls of a fortified city, in which the French were now enclosed, the work could not go on; the siege lingered from November to July, under accumulated horrors to the inhabitants.

Such was the dreadful situation to which the Spanish natives of the city of Santo Domingo were reduced, the armies of their contending patriots, without the walls, dispirited, and unprovided with necessaries, when the French were summoned to surrender by Captain Price Cumby, commanding his Britannic Majesty's naval forces before that port; and the refusal of the garrison was immediately communicated to the respective commanders in Jamaica.

The commanders saw that if some more effective measures were not adopted, England would lose the merit of all that aid and succour which had been already afforded the Spanish patriots, in a considerable and expensive armament sent up to their aid, and that in the event of the blockading squadron having to leave the grounds, the French would receive those succours for which they had sent to Europe, to the United States, and particularly to Cuba, according to previous arrangements. From these considerations Major-general Carmichael, commander of the land forces, calculated the fatal consequence that would result to the combined English and Spanish cause, and the vengeance that would be subsequently inflicted on the patriots of the island, were the enemy not dislodged. With the most laudable and humane zeal he resolved to espouse the cause, and his own letter to the Spanish general on arriving, will best explain his sentiments.

(Copy.)

His Majesty's Ship Lark, off Point Abacoa, 17th June, 1809.

"SIR,

"I have the honour to acquaint your excellency that in consequence of a communication from Vice-admiral Rowley, commander in chief of his majesty's naval forces, Jamaica, and having been made acquainted with a summons from Commodore Cumby, commander of his Britannic Majesty's squadron off Santo Domingo to the commander in chief of the French forces, with General Barquier's reply thereto; I considered it my duty to adopt the most efficacious means of giving every aid in my power to the arms of his Catholic Majesty, Ferdinand the Seventh, by assisting your excellency in your zealous operations, and to dispossess the French of the city of Santo Domingo, that it may be restored to its lawful sovereign.

"For this purpose I have thought proper to form a corps of artillery and infantry, who, in obeying the commands of their king, and maintaining the honour of the British nation, are inspired with a fervent wish to co-operate by every means in their power, for the glorious cause of the Spanish patriots.

"Being informed that the fortifications are very strong, and that the French in reliance upon]

[them, expect reinforcement and supplies, and that the army under your excellency's command is not sufficiently furnished with artillery, it appeared to me a primary object, to have the means of opening an access to the enemy, and proving to the French the intrepid spirit that will ever animate troops, actuated by loyalty to their beloved sovereign, and real patriotism to their country.

"Being so far advanced in his Majesty's ship Lark, with a division of the troops that sailed on the 7th instant; I have the pleasure of making an early communication to your excellency, with an anxious hope, of a speedy interview, to concert measures for the entire expulsion of the French, in this quarter of the globe.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) H. L. Carmichael,
Major-general, &c.

To his Excellency, General Sanchez Ramirez."

The expedition destined to go on this service, in all amounting to 1200 men, embarked about the 4th and 7th of June at Jamaica, but owing to adverse winds only part of the divisions arrived before the city on the 26th, and on the following day the major general landed at Palenque, and proceeded with his confidential officers to reconnoitre the walls and fortifications, which he fully effected on the 29th.

The major general then disposed a small body of Spaniards, so as to cut off all communication with fort St. Jerome, which is a strong hold situated two miles *w.* from the capital, on the main road. After reconnoitring all the works of the Spaniards, and viewing the resources of the country, he took post at the village of St. Carlos, expecting the British light infantry to join him, which from the inclemency of the weather, and swelling of the intervening rivers, was not effected till July 1.

The French general in the mean time, applied to the British commander for a cessation of hostilities, which was refused; and some prisoners having been taken in going to the French outposts, with orders and public and private letters, it appeared, that the French had determined not to surrender as prisoners of war. The white flag was, however, kept flying, and another overture being made, the British general, as well to gain time, as to avoid the effusion of blood, which must have ensued in the storming of that place, the enmity of the exasperated Spanish peasantry particularly considered; consented to the meeting of commissioners, but from the difficulty of communicating with the navy, they did not assemble till July 3.

The commissioners on the part of the French, declaring their determination and pointed instructions, never to submit as prisoners of war, the major-general immediately broke off the negociation, but required a communication with Commodore Cumby commanding the squadron, for the purpose of intimating the rupture, and concerting measures to receive supplies of men ordnance stores, and provisions, the overflowing of the river Haina, having completely obstructed all intercourse with the distant landing place of Palenque.

On the 4th, a letter was received by the English commander from the Spanish chief, expressing his apprehensions from the severe commencement of the rainy season, respecting the diseases that prevailed amongst the Spanish troops; representing the dangers that threatened the blockading squadron from the approaching hurricane season of the year, on a coast destitute of shelter; and intreating him to concede in some points of the conditions proposed to the French. The major-general, however, was resolved not to yield a single point derogatory to the English and Spanish interests; but saw from existing circumstances, the necessity of bringing the affair to a speedy issue.

There being now reason to believe, from various sources of information, that the object of the French garrison was to gain time, and obtain intelligence by spies and emissaries among the Spaniards, of the number of British forces which had arrived; the major-general peremptorily refused, on the part of the British, the admission of the propositions made by the French, and in expectation that hostilities would instantly commence, general dispositions both for defence and attack were made, which ultimately led to the siege and capture of the city.

A capitulation at length being agreed upon, the forts of St. Jerome and Ozama, with the gate of Condé, were delivered up at 12 o'clock the next day, to the combined English and Spanish troops, and on the 11th of the same month, the French troops, consisting of 1200 effective men, evacuated the city, and laid down their arms as prisoners of war, to 528 British troops, with about 200 Spanish militia, exclusive of armed peasantry and blacks then before the walls. On taking possession it appeared that there were, besides 200 sick or convalescents, 300 militia, and above 400 armed inhabitants. On their walls were 115 serviceable guns, 42 of which]

[were brass, and in their magazines, a large supply of ordnance, engineer-stores, and ammunition, and 14 days provisions. It was ascertained, that in a council of war, previous to the surrender, a sortie and attack upon the British forces at St. Carlos was proposed, and overruled by one voice only.

The expulsion of the French and subsequent evacuation of the English, was followed by a commercial treaty with the Spaniards, which placed the British on a footing with themselves.

In the treaty entered into between Great Britain and France, of January 1814, those relations seemed to have been strengthened and cemented by the noble and generous resolution of the two high contracting parties, to secure to Spain her possession and title in this island; for, by the eighth article of that treaty it is agreed, by his most Christian Majesty, that the "*portion of St. Domingo, ceded to France by the treaty of Basle,*" shall be restored "in full right and sovereignty to his Catholic Majesty;" but, by the treaty of May of the same year, the whole island was restored to the French crown.

CHAP. III.

Origin of Trade in the Antilles.—The British W. Indies considered as Depots of Foreign Trade. —Navigation Acts.—W. India Free-Ports.— Ports of Commerical Enterprise.

Origin of Trade in the Antilles.—It was as early as the year 1626 that 'there was a company (says Froger) erected for the American islands, and then they began to be peopled, and ships frequently sailed thither to trade for sugar, for which they paid ready money; but after divers petty wars, there was a general peace made with the Indians in 1660, and they had St. Vincent and St. Domingo assigned them to retire to. The American Islands Company were of no longer duration than the year 1651, when they sold them to the Knights of Malta, and several other individuals. They then came under the dominion of the French crown. Martinique having been established the residence of the General and Sovereign Courts of Judicature; whereupon were dependent St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, Granada, Marigalante, Santos, St. Croix, St. Lucia and Tobago.'

But what may be called a steady trade by the W. Indies to the Americas, was not engaged in by the British till after the restoration of Charles the Second, in 1660; and from its very commencement, the scheme of adventure hath chiefly been directed to the Spanish settlements, as offering the most advantageous market for British produce and manufacture, and the most valuable returns of exotic dyes, drugs, raw materials, live stock and bullion.

British West Indies considered as Depôts of Foreign Trade.—In order to facilitate the above course of trade, the British government hath most judiciously devised the erecting certain places and harbours of its W. India settlements into free ports, admitting, under certain restrictions and regulations, a free entry and trade by foreign vessels.

It was considered that masters and mariners coming from those countries which were to be supplied with European articles, of whatever description, could more readily procure and bring what was desirable for barter, and in payment; and being better acquainted with the means of access, and channels of disposal on their return, might greatly extend the use and sale of British goods.

The English merchantmen could in many cases merely hover over the creeks and inlets of an immense line of coast, which the natives might run into, for a retreat and safeguard for their cargoes, from aid of friends or accomplices, partners in their business, or dealers in their commodities; for their business, on one side, was illicit, and strictly forbidden.

The trade, however, connived at and encouraged under the British Free-port Acts, ever has been, and is, a contraband trade in view of the Spanish government; which enforces the system of colonial monopoly with an extraordinary jealousy, and rigour proportionate to the value of what it possesses, and to its intrinsic weakness for the conservation of it.

The simple fact, that the government of Old Spain is in itself a principal merchant, or rather trading company, with New Spain, leads at once to an estimate of commerce carried on between the two parties, that of Europe in power, and that of S. America in subjection. The intermediate, or private traders, whether licensed to share in the register ships or otherwise, or dealing in the interior country by agency, or under patronage, may be supposed to indemnify themselves against exaction by extortion, and to aggravate oppressions on the industrious part of the community, who work to pay others beside themselves, and must sell as well as buy at the price of the monopolist.

Nothing but absolute and vigilant power can bind the parties to such dealing and traffic: under such circumstances, there must ever be a]

[struggle to evade the oppression which cannot be resisted; every native of New Spain must at heart be disloyal, and seek to elude the ordinances which enact the pillage of his industry, and the privation of what he requires; show him in secret what will compensate his work, and furnish to his necessities—he is of course a smuggler!

It is this description of people, possessing the means from a rich country, which has invited and supported a British trade.

It is an error to suppose that, in any case, or under any compromise, the Spanish administration allows of a trade with its American settlements by foreign nations. It hath, indeed, admitted enumerated articles of necessity for working its mines; but with the utmost caution in excluding all others. When, at any former period, it hath relaxed in a small and fixed proportion, allowing miscellaneous imports, it was to cover and ensure the import which was indispensable; but the exception hath depended upon, and ceased with the exigency. Its *asiento* treaty, of ancient date, hath long expired; its dealing since for African slaves never admitted them as a passport for other commodities; if any such passport article ever existed, it was, and is, quicksilver, so indispensable for separating the ore of Potosi, and other mines; but this, also, hath been merely occasional, and a connivance rather than a regulation, unknown, and to be excused to the government at home, as a case of necessity, and in exception to its general system and orders.

The foreign trader can of course place no reliance on such instance of admission and traffic, proceeding, as it may have done, from circumstances of necessity and policy, which were merely contingent, and may not operate in a future case.

The course of this trade being, then, on the one side, illicit, and liable to check and prevention as occasionally discovered, it admits not of exposure as to its points of destination, its interior channels, and general means of success. With a view to British interests, it cannot be exhibited in detail; and we content ourselves with pointing to the Spanish Main, and, in general terms, recommending this branch of W. India trade; we merely call the attention of the British merchant to the wealth, population, and extent of country, he may have to deal with; and to the extent of coast for his selection of adventure, where it may least be provided against and obstructed.

Mr. Bryan Edwards, in his first volume of the History of the W. Indies, gives a remarkable instance of the exposure of the details of trade between the W. India free ports and the Spanish Main, and of the consequent loss to the British merchant, of much, or most, of that lucrative commerce. Mr. Edwards states, that the trade from England, *viâ* Jamaica, about the beginning of the last century, furnished the Spanish settlements yearly with £.1,500,000 value of British goods; that subsequently, from the vigilance of the Spanish government, and its *guarda costas*, or from other causes, the trade was on the decline; but that it was yet considerable to the year 1764. To revive and encourage this trade, free ports were established at Jamaica, and other islands, in 1766; but unwarily, and unfortunately, an order of the British government followed, requiring of its officers at such ports, a return of entries of all Spanish and other foreign vessels, with accounts of their cargoes, to be made to ministers at home. These accounts, however officially marked private, yet passing through the hands of many clerks, were by some one betrayed; and Mr. Edwards was informed by a merchant of Carthagena, that, in fact, a copy reached the ministry at Madrid, who immediately dispatched orders to the governments in New Spain, directing the most exemplary and cruel punishment of the parties concerned in the traffic so exposed; and enforcing greater vigilance of the *guarda costas*, and other measures of prevention, in future.

The whole subject indeed, however important, is peculiarly delicate; it admits merely of hints and intimations: contraband is a kind of commercial warfare, in which to publish the design of attack, is to suggest the means of defence and prevention. The institution of British free ports is, however, matter of notoriety, and their stations may be severally considered as suitable or not, to the establishment. But before we proceed to the consideration of them, it will be our duty to enter into an analysis of the system of British navigation, up to the period of their establishment.

Navigation Acts.—Of the commercial regulations of this kingdom, the memorable law which was passed in the 12th year of King Charles II. chap. 18, commonly called, by way of eminence, the Navigation Act, may be considered as the foundation. By this law it is, among other provisions, declared,

First, That no goods or commodities should be imported into, or exported out of, any of his majesty's plantations or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, but in ships belonging to the sub-]

[jects of England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, or in such as are of the built of, and belonging to, such plantations, and whereof three-fourths of the mariners and the master are English subjects, on pain of the forfeiture of ship and cargo; and all admirals and commanders of king's ships are authorized to make seizure of ships offending herein.

Secondly, That no person born out of the allegiance of his majesty, who is not naturalized, or made a free denizen, shall act as a merchant or factor in any of the said places, upon pain of forfeiting all his goods and chattels.

Thirdly, That all governors, before they enter into the exercise of their office, shall take an oath to do their utmost, that the above-mentioned regulations shall be punctually and *bona fide* observed; and a governor neglecting his duty therein, shall be removed from his government.

Fourthly, That no goods or commodities whatever of the growth or manufacture of Africa, Asia, and America, shall be imported into England, Ireland, Wales, Guernsey and Jersey, or Berwick, in any other ships but those belonging to the said places, or to the plantations, and navigated in the manner aforesaid, under penalty of forfeiting both ship and cargo.

Fifthly, That no sugars, tobacco, cotton, indigo, ginger, fustick, or other dying woods, of the production of any English plantation in Asia, Africa, or America, shall be exported therefrom to any place, except to some other English plantation; or to England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick. The above commodities being named in the act are called, generally enumerated, in contradistinction to all others of plantation growth; and,

Lastly, Bond security is required from all ships trading to or in the plantations, and lading on board such commodities, for the due observance of this part of the law.

Such, together with the conditions under which foreign-built ships were to enjoy the privilege of English ships, are the chief restrictions and provisions of this celebrated statute, so far as they relate to the plantation trade, and they are extended and strengthened by a law which passed three years afterwards, which the plantation governors are also sworn to enforce; for by the 15th of Cha. II. c. 7. it is enacted, That no commodity of the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe, shall be imported into the British plantations, but such as are laden and put on board in England, Wales, or Berwick; and in English-built shipping, (or ships taken as prize, and certified according to a former act) whereof the master and three-fourths of the mariners are English, and carried directly to the said plantations. There is an exception however as to salt for the fisheries of New England and Newfoundland, wines from Madeira and the Azores, and horses and victuals from Ireland and Scotland; and the preamble to the act, after stating that plantations are formed by citizens of the mother-country, assigns the motive for this restriction to be, "the maintaining a greater correspondence and kindness between the subjects at home and those in the plantations—keeping the colonies in a firmer dependance upon the mother-country, making them yet more beneficial and advantageous to it in the further employment and encrease of English shipping, vent of English manufactures and commodities; rendering the navigation to and from them more safe and cheap, and making this kingdom a staple, not only of the commodities of the plantations, but also of the commodities of other countries and places for the supply of them, it being (continues the preamble) the usage of other nations to keep their plantation trade to themselves."

The design of this act, says Postlethwaite, was to make a double voyage necessary, where the colonies used any commodities of the growth and manufacture of Europe but British: for if they could not be shipped in Great Britain, they must first be brought thither from the places of their growth and manufacture, and Great Britain would consequently have the benefit, not only of that freight, but of as many ships and sailors as must be employed in bringing them from thence. It is remarkable, that by this act Ireland was indirectly deprived of the benefits allowed that kingdom by the act of navigation, for it is required, that none of the enumerated goods shall be carried from the plantations to any country or place whatsoever, until they have been first unladen and put ashore in some port or haven in England, Wales, or Berwick. By a subsequent act this intention was avowed, and Ireland was expressly shut out from a direct trade with the plantations.

Ten years after this, another act passed (25th Cha. II. c. 7.) imposing duties on sugar and other commodities exported from one colony to another, and the following is assigned as the reason: "that the inhabitants of some of the said colonies, not content with being supplied with those commodities for their own use, free from all customs, had, contrary to law, exported considerable quantities to divers parts of Europe,]

[and did likewise vend great quantities to the shipping of other nations, to the great injury of the trade and navigation of the parent state."—For the prevention of this inconvenience in future, the duties in question are laid on the export of those commodities from the plantations; unless security be given to transport them directly to England, Berwick, or Wales. The duties were the same as were then paid in England on most of those commodities imported for home consumption. Those upon sugar were, for white sugar, 5*s.* and Muscavado, 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; tobacco, 1*d.* cotton-wool, ½*d.* indigo, 2*d.* *cacao*, 1*d.* per lb.; logwood, £5. ginger, 1*s.* the cwt.; fustick, &c. 6*d.*

This act was soon found to require explanation and amendment; for the payment of the aforesaid duties having been considered in the colonies as an exoneration from giving security not to go to any foreign market in Europe; it was provided by the 7th and 8th W. III. c. 22. that, notwithstanding the payment of the duties in question, the same security should be given as was required by former acts; and it was enacted and declared, that no commodities of the growth or manufacture of the plantations, should, on any pretence whatsoever, be landed in Ireland or Scotland, unless the same were first landed in England, and had paid the rates and duties wherewith they were there chargeable by law.

By the same act it is declared, that no goods or merchandise whatever shall be imported into, or exported out of, any British colony or plantation, but in ships built in England, Ireland, or the plantations, wholly owned by English subjects, and navigated as before; and provisions are established concerning the registering of ships, to prevent the fraud of passing foreign-built ships as English; together with various regulations to prevent counterfeit certificates, and frauds in the import and export to and from the colonies; for all which, reference must be made to the act at large, which is systematic and comprehensive in a high degree.

These acts therefore, and some intermediate ones, which it is not necessary to particularise, may be considered as supplemental to the navigation act, and they form altogether the foundation of our colonial code; most of the subsequent acts now in force, being framed in the same spirit, and intended to enforce and strengthen the system; with some few alterations and exceptions only, which however do not extend to any great and substantial change in the principle or groundwork.

It may be, however, necessary to quote the chief additions, alterations, and exceptions, so far as the British sugar islands are principally concerned.

By statute 3 and 4 Ann, c. 5. rice and melasses were put into the enumeration, and by c. 8. Irish linens, laden in Ireland in English-built shipping, navigated according to law, were admitted into the plantations.

By 7 Ann, c. 8. Jesuits bark, and all other drugs, are permitted to be imported into Great Britain from the British plantations, on payment of the same duties as if imported directly from the place of their growth.

By 13 Geo. I. c. 15. and 7 Geo. II. c. 18. cochineal and indigo were allowed for a certain time to be imported from any port or place, in British or other ships; which acts were afterwards renewed, and are now in force.

By 3 Geo. II. c. 28. rice was permitted, under certain conditions, to be carried from S. Carolina to any port of Europe *s.* of Cape Finisterre; a privilege afterwards extended to N. Carolina and Georgia.

By 4 Geo. II. c. 15. non-enumerated goods, (viz. goods not enumerated in the 12th of Cha. II. c. 18.) are admitted to be imported directly into Ireland from the colonies, notwithstanding the 7 and 8 of W. III. c. 22. Hops, by a subsequent statute, are excepted out of this indulgence.

By 12 Geo. II. c. 30. sugars, under cetain regulations and restrictions, are permitted to be carried immediately from the British plantations to any port or place *s.* of Cape Finisterre, and also to any foreign port of Europe in licensed ships, which are to call first at some port in Great Britain. This was considered as a great indulgence, but the conditions and regulations on which it was granted were so strict and numerous, as to defeat in a great measure the intention of the legislature.

By 4 and 5 Geo. III. sect. 27. British plantation coffee, *piemento*, and *cacao-nuts* are put into the enumeration; as are likewise whale-fins, raw silk, hides, and skins, pot and pearl ashes; and by sect. 28. security is required that no iron, nor any sort of wood called lumber, the growth, production, or manufacture of any British colony or plantation, shall be landed in any port of Europe except Great Britain; an exception however was afterwards made by 5 Geo. III. c. 45. by which iron might be carried to Ireland, and lumber to Madeira, the Azores, or any part of Europe *s.* of Cape Finisterre.

By 5 Geo. III. c. 39. bond is required to be]

[given in the British plantations, that no rum or other spirits shall be landed in the Isle of Man; and by the 6 Geo. III. c. 52. security is required for all non-enumerated goods, that the same shall not be landed at any port of Europe to the *n.* of Cape Finisterre, except in Great Britain, and (by a subsequent law) Ireland.

By 5 Geo. III. c. 52. any sort of cotton wool may be imported in British-built ships from any country or place, duty free.

By the 6 Geo. III. c. 49. was established the measure of opening free ports in Jamaica and Dominica. By this act, live cattle, and all manner of goods and commodities whatsoever (except tobacco), the produce of any foreign colony in America, might be imported into Prince Rupert's Bay and Rosseau in Dominica, and into Kingston, Savanna-la-Mar, Montego Bay, and Santa Lucia in Jamaica, from any foreign colony or plantation in America, in any foreign sloop, schooner, or other vessel, not having more than one deck. This act was temporary, but was afterwards continued, until materially altered by the 27 Geo. III. c. 27. wherein, among sundry other regulations, two more ports are opened in addition to the former, viz. St. George, in the island of Grenada, and the port of Nassau, in the island of New Providence, one of the Bahamas, into which cotton wool, indigo, cochineal, drugs of all kinds, *cacao*, logwood, fustick, and other dye woods, hides, and tallow, beaver, and all sort of furs, tortoise-shell, mill timber, mahogany, &c. horses, asses, mules, and cattle, being the growth or production of any colony or plantation in America, belonging to or under the dominion of any foreign European sovereign or state, and all coin and bullion, &c. may be imported in any foreign sloop, schooner, or other vessel, not having more than one deck, and not exceeding the burthen of 70 tons, and provided also that such vessel is owned and navigated by the subjects of some foreign European sovereign or state. It is permitted also to the same description of persons and vessels to export from these parts British plantation rum, Negroes, and all manner of goods that had been legally imported, except naval stores and iron. The foreign articles thus permitted to be brought into the free ports by this act, may be exported again to Great Britain or Ireland; and by a subsequent law (30 Geo. III. c. 29.) the restriction in regard to the tonnage of foreign vessels is taken off, but these vessels are still limited to one deck.

The next great measure was, the opening the plantation trade to the people of Ireland, which was first partially done by the 18 Geo. III. c. 55. and more fully by the 20 Geo. III. c. 10. under which they enjoy the like unlimited intercourse with the colonies, both in respect of import and export, as Great Britain; on condition only that the goods so imported and exported are made liable to equal duties and drawbacks, and subject to the same securities, regulations, and restrictions as in Great Britain; a condition to which the parliament of Ireland consented, by passing an act imposing duties on the imports, conformable to those of Great Britain.

The next and most important treaty of commerce and navigation with these islands was that of the American Intercourse Bill, which was brought in by the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, March 1783.

"A Bill for the provisional establishment and regulation of trade and intercourse between the subjects of Great Britain and those of the United States of North America.

"Whereas the following 13 provinces of N. America, namely, New Hampshire, Massachusett's Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, N. Carolina, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Pennsylvania, S. Carolina, and Georgia, have lately been solemnly acknowledged by his Majesty to be, and now are, free, independent, and sovereign States, by the name and description of the United States of America:

"Be it therefore enacted and declared by the King's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that all statutes heretofore made to regulate the trade and commerce between Great Britain and the British Plantations in America, or to prohibit any intercourse and commerce between Great Britain and the territories now composing the said United States of America, wholly and absolutely cease:

"And whereas, whilst the aforesaid 13 provinces were annexed to and constituted a part of the dominions of Great Britain, the inhabitants of the said provinces enjoyed all rights, franchises, privileges, and benefits of British subjects born in Great Britain, as well in respect to the trade and commerce with Great Britain as in other instances; and in consequence thereof the ships and vessels of the said inhabitants, being navigated in like manner as British ships and vessels are by law directed to be navigated, were]

[admitted into the ports of Great Britain, with all the privileges and advantages of British-built ships:

"And whereas, by the several laws now existing for regulation of the trade and commerce of Great Britain with foreign States, the subjects of the latter are, as aliens, liable to various commercial restrictions, and also to various duties and customs at the ports of Great Britain, which hitherto have not been applicable to, or demandable from, the inhabitants of the several provinces now composing the said United States of America:

"And whereas it is highly expedient that the intercourse between Great Britain and the said United States should be established on the most enlarged principles of reciprocal benefit to both countries; but, from the distance between Great Britain and America, it must be a considerable time before any convention or treaty for establishing and regulating the trade and intercourse between Great Britain and the said United States of America, upon a permanent foundation, can be concluded:

"Now, for the purpose of making a temporary regulation of the commerce and intercourse between Great Britain and the said United States of America, and in order to evince the disposition of Great Britain to be on terms of the most perfect amity with the said United States of America, and in confidence of a like friendly disposition on the part of the said United States towards Great Britain; Be it further enacted, That from and after the the ships and vessels of the subjects and citizens of the said United States of America, with the merchandises and goods on board the same, shall be admitted into all the ports of Great Britain in the same manner as the ships and vessels of the subjects of other independent sovereign States; but the merchandises and goods on board such ships or vessels of the subjects or citizens of the said United States, being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said United States, shall be liable to the same duties and charges only, as the same merchandises and goods would be subject to, if they were the property of British subjects, and imported in British-built ships or vessels, navigated by British natural-born subjects.

"And be it further enacted, That during the time aforesaid, the ships and vessels of the subjects and citizens of the said United States, shall be admitted into the ports of his Majesty's islands, colonies, or plantations, in America, with any merchandises or goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture, of the territories of the aforesaid United States, with liberty to export from his said Majesty's islands, colonies, or plantations in America, to the said territories of the said United States, any merchandises or goods whatsoever; and such merchandises and goods, which shall be so imported into, or exported from, the said British islands, colonies, or plantations, in America, shall be liable to the same duties and charges only, as the same merchandises and goods would be subject to, if they were the property of British natural-born subjects, and imported or exported in British-built ships or vessels, navigated by British seamen.

"And be it further enacted, That during all the time herein-before limited, there shall be the same drawbacks, exemptions, and bounties, on merchandises and goods exported from Great Britain into the territories of the said United States of America, as are allowed in the case of exportation to the islands, plantations, or colonies, now remaining, or belonging to the crown of Great Britain, in America.

"And be it further enacted, That all ships and vessels belonging to any of the citizens or subjects of the said United States of America, which shall have come into any port of Great Britain since the together with the goods and merchandises on board the same ships and vessels, shall have the full benefit of this act."

The terms of this intercourse of temporising, but necessitous, policy, were soon abrogated by the 28 Geo. III. c. 6. which took effect the 4th of April 1788, whereby it is enacted, "That no goods or commodities whatever shall be imported or brought from any of the territories belonging to the United States of America, into any of his Majesty's W. India islands (in which description the Bahama Islands, and the Bermuda, or Somers Islands, are included) under the penalty of the forfeiture thereof, and also of the ship or vessel in which the same shall be imported or brought, together with all her guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel; except tobacco, pitch, tar, turpentine, hemp, flax, masts, yards, bowsprits, staves, heading, boards, timber, shingles, and lumber of any sort; horses, neat cattle, sheep, hogs, poultry, and live stock of any sort; bread, biscuit, flour, pease, beans, potatoes, wheat, rice, oats, barley, and grain of any sort, such commodities, respectively, being the growth or production of any of the territories of the said United States of America: And that none of the goods or commodities herein before excepted,]

[enumerated, and described, shall be imported or brought into any of the said islands from the territories of the said United States, under the like penalty of the forfeiture thereof, and also of the ship or vessel in which the same shall be so imported or brought, together with all her guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel, except by British subjects, and in British-built ships, owned by his Majesty's subjects, and navigated according to law." By another clause, "none of the aforesaid articles are to be brought from any of the foreign islands, under the like penalty, except in times of public emergency and distress, when the governors of any of our islands, with the advice and consent of the council, may authorise the importation of them by British subjects in British-built ships for a limited time." Such was the law as it then stood with regard to the import of American articles into the British West Indies.—Concerning the export of British West Indian produce to the United States, it was permitted to export, in ships British-built and owned, any goods or commodities whatsoever, which were not, at the time of passing the act, prohibited to be exported to any foreign country in Europe, and also sugar, melasses, coffee, cocoa-nuts, ginger, and piemento; bond being given for the due landing of the same in the United States.

It was not till the year 1796, that Great Britain consented to give up any of her carrying trade to and from these islands. This privilege was first partially ceded to the United States by the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, concluded at London, November 19, 1794, and finally ratified by the American house of representatives on April 30, 1796.—Article XII. of that treaty is expressed in the words following: "His Majesty consents, that it shall and may be lawful, during the time hereinafter limited, for the citizens of the United States to carry to any of his Majesty's islands and ports in the West Indies from the United States, in their own vessels, not being above the burthen of 70 tons, any goods or merchandises, being of the growth, manufacture, or produce of the said States, which it is or may be lawful to carry to the said islands or ports from the said States in British vessels; and that the said American vessels shall be subject there to no other or higher tonnage duties or charges than shall be payable by British vessels in the ports of the United States; and that the cargoes of the said American vessels shall be subject there to no other or higher duties or charges than shall be payable on the like articles if imported there from the said States in British vessels.

"And his Majesty also consents, that it shall be lawful for the said American citizens to purchase, load, and carry away in their said vessels, to the United States, from the said islands and ports, all such articles, being of the growth, manufacture, or produce of the said islands, as may now by law be carried from thence to the said States in British vessels, and subject only to the same duties and charges on exportation to which British vessels and their cargoes are or shall be subject in similar circumstances.

"Provided always, that the said American vessels do carry and land their cargoes in the United States only; it being expressly agreed and declared, that, during the continuance of this Article, the United States will prohibit and restrain the carrying any melasses, sugar, coffee, cocoa, or cotton, in American vessels, either from his Majesty's islands or from the United States, to any part of the world, except the United States, reasonable sea-stores excepted.

"Provided also, that it shall and may be lawful, during the same period, for British vessels to import from the said islands into the United States, and to export from the United States to the said islands, all articles whatever, being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said islands, or of the United States respectively, which now may by the laws of the said States be so imported and exported; and that the cargoes of the said British vessels shall be subject to no other or higher duties or charges, than shall be payable on the same articles if so imported or exported in American vessels.

"It is agreed that this Article, and every matter and thing therein contained, shall continue to be in force during the continuance of the war in which his Majesty is now engaged; and also for two years from and after the day of the signature of the preliminary or other articles of peace by which the same may be terminated.

"And it is further agreed, that at the expiration of the said term, the two contracting parties will endeavour further to regulate their commerce in this respect, according to the situation in which his Majesty may then find himself with respect to the West Indies, and with a view to such arrangements as may best conduce to the mutual advantage and extension of commerce."

It will be thus found from the above outlines, that this British system of navigation embraces two distinct objects; first, the augmentation of its naval strength, by an entire exclusion of]

[foreign shipping from the plantation trade, (and which, with the small exception last mentioned, she has invariably effected); secondly, the securing to herself all the emoluments arising from her colonies, by a double monopoly over them: viz. a monopoly of their whole import, which is to be altogether from Great Britain; and a monopoly of all their export, which (as far as it can serve any useful purpose to the mother-country) is to be no where but to Great Britain. On the same idea, it was contrived that they should send all their products to her, raw and in their first state; and that they should take every thing from her in the last stage of manufacture.

West India Free Ports.—The act of the 45th George III. c. 57. enumerates and consolidates the several acts for the institution of free ports in the British West Indies: it recites — the 6th Geo. III. c. 49. establishing free ports at Dominica and Jamaica, for a limited period; the 13th Geo. III. c. 73. and the 14th Geo. III. c. 4. continuing the acts of 6th Geo. III. in force to the year 1780; the 21st Geo. III. c. 29. leaving the privilege of Dominica, as expired, but continuing the free ports of Jamaica to 1787; the 27th Geo. III. c. 27. continuing the privilege to Jamaica, reviving it for Dominica, under greater restrictions, and further extending it to the ports of Nassau in the Bahamas, and to George Town in Grenada; the 33d Geo. III. c. 50. adding the port of St. John's in Antigua; and the 42d Geo. III. c. 102. making a free port of Road Harbour in Tortola.

The 45th Geo. III. c. 57. is entitled, "An act to consolidate and extend the several laws for allowing the importation and exportation of certain goods and merchandise into and from certain ports in the West Indies." It enacts, "that wool, cotton-wool, indigo, cochineal, drugs of all kinds, cocoa, logwood, fustic, and all woods for dyers' use, hides, skins, tallow, beavers, furs, tortoise-shell, hard woods, mahogany, and all cabinet woods, horses, asses, mules, and cattle, being the growth or produce of any of the colonies or plantations in America, or of any country on the continent of America, under the dominion of any foreign European sovereign or state; and that all coin and bullion, diamonds and precious stones, may be imported into the

Ports of	*Islands of*
Roseau,	Dominica.
Kingston,	Jamaica.
Savannah,	Jamaica.
Santa Lucia,	Jamaica.
Montego Bay,	Jamaica.
Port Antonio,	Jamaica.
Nassau,	New Providence.
Pitt's Town,	Crooked Isle.
Principal Port,	Bermuda.
George's Town,	Grenada.
St. John's,	Antigua.
Road Harbour,	Tortola.
Kingston,	St. Vincent.
St. Josef,	Trinidad.
Scarborough,	Tobago.

And the above enumerated articles are to be imported in any foreign sloop, schooner, or other vessel not having more than one deck, being owned and navigated by persons inhabiting any of the said colonies or country of America, any law, usage, or custom to the contrary, notwithstanding.

By section 2, tobacco, under certain regulations, is added to the articles allowed for import.

By sect. 7, foreign sugars and coffees may be imported to Nassau in the Bahamas.

By sect. 7, other articles imported than those enumerated, or in other vessels than as described, incur forfeiture of ship and cargo.

By sect. 8, an export of rum from the above free ports is allowed, and of negroes brought in British ships from Africa; and of all goods legally imported, that is, from Great Britain, or British American colonies, with exception to masts, yards, bowsprits, pitch, tar, turpentine, and iron: but no export can be made to a British island or settlement, unless that of live cattle; for,

By sect. 9, the enumerated articles, as imported, are restricted in export from the said recited free ports to Great Britain, in British ships navigated according to law, as under provision of the 12th of Charles II. &c. &c.

By sect. 13, East India goods are especially prohibited in this trade; and lastly, by this act all former acts are repealed.

The policy is observable in this law, which reconciles a freedom of trade with the system of colonial monopoly, and a partial infringement of the letter with the more essential spirit and purpose of the Navigation Acts; which restricts the import to raw materials, and makes them payable by manufacture; and which limits the foreign carrying trade to sloops and schooners, taking the return trade in larger British ships; providing in either case, against a nursery of naval power.

[The enumerated articles, with exception to cattle and live stock, and hard woods for mills and building, are ill suited for use and home consumption in any island; and the privileged colonies are mere factors for the mother-country, with the exception stated, and with that of rum being allowed in the export: these, however, are great advantages; and to these, from the very business and factory, may be added others, of increased population, of a greater resort of shipping, of an influx and choice of British goods, of more wealthy merchants, a circulation of specie, and resource and accommodation to the landed interest.

The only provision in this law which appears objectionable, is that which, in certain instances, allows the import of foreign colonial produce. In countries growing the like articles, the distinction of foreign and native sugars, or coffee, cannot be kept up; the protecting duty is a mere incentive to fraud; the mark on package, partially made, or not, is no security, and custom-house oaths are unhappily proverbial. The British colonies, restricted in both purchase and sale, to dealings with the mother-country, are entitled, as far as is consistent with the interests of the parent state, to a reciprocity, and to exclusive possession of the home-market, for disposal of their produce; and this they can no longer be secure of, when the imports of foreign colonial produce, is extended to islands furnishing the like commodities.

In proof of the validity of these observations, we find that Dominica, which had been established a free port in 1767, had been deprived of that privilege in 1778, in as much as the permission to import foreign colonial produce was found to have operated in an inverse ratio to any emolument to the parent state; and when the privilege of a free port was again allowed to Dominica in 1787, in the form it since continues, that produce was excepted from the enumerated imports; and the objection in this quarter removed.

But the island of Tortola, by the 46th Geo. III. cap. 72, still enjoys the privilege, subject to the advice and authority of his majesty's privy council, of importing all foreign colonial produce, in the same manner as does also the port of Nassau, in New Providence; and this, with the other Virgin Isles, being a sugar colony, is thought to be guarded against the export to Great Britain, by an estimate of the native produce having been taken at 5,880,000 lbs. of sugar, or 4000 hogsheads; and by the order, that no greater quantity coming from Tortola, shall be admitted, on duties, as British sugars. This, however, was much too large an allowance; the sugar, produce of Tortola, and the Virgin Isles, not exceeding, on a past average, from 1799 to 1804, 31,088 cwt.; viz. only 3,481,856 lbs. and 2400 hogsheads.

But, however, this privilege of importing colonial produce is alleged to have been given to Tortola, from a conception that Great Britain might thence acquire a carrying trade of the coffees yet gathered by the negroes of Hayti; but then it must have been with prejudice to the growing settlements at Jamaica; and this, with the sugar trade, is open to all those objections, on the part of the British Colonies, which we have before stated.

Grenada is peculiarly well situated for an easy run to the island of Margarita, as a depôt for the Caracas, and generally for mercantile adventure on the *n.* coast of S. America. From Grenville Town, in this island, the trade with the Spanish Main was, in 1792, carried on to a very considerable extent; being to the amount of £.600,000 value in exports of printed cottons, hardware, and other British manufactures. In 1788, Grenada exported to foreign settlements 1598 African slaves; but has since dropt that branch of commerce, and is an example that the trade generally is not dependent on such an article in the assortment of cargo.

Upon the whole, with regard to the institution of free ports, it may be observed that those of Jamaica are calculated to command the trade within the Gulf; those of the Bahamas, and of Grenada, the intercourse with the *n.* and *s.* extremities of the chain of British Islands, and those of Tortola, Antigua, Dominica, and St. Vincent's, such communication, as where a more central depôt from various causes may be desirable.

We proceed now to the consideration of ports of commercial enterprise.

Ports of Commercial Enterprise.—Of these, the first that demands attention is the free port of St. Josef, in Trinidad, well adapted for carrying on a considerable traffic with the opposite coast, for the supply of the wealthy and populous districts far inland, by a road and passage, however lengthened or intricate. Under the present circumstances of difficulty in approaching the immediate coasts of Cumana and the Caracas from the open seas, the trade hath actually taken this channel, and succeeded in a very considerable export of British goods. The traffic, to the ex-]

[tent it is capable of, is most practicable and safe; it is carried on in small vessels, or even in boats, traversing or coasting the Gulf of Paria; and on the continental side, running up creeks and rivers, and delivering small but frequent cargoes, and altogether forming an important and valuable branch of commerce, but which may possibly shift to another course by sea, as opportunity offers; not but that the navigation to the *s.* must take an offing, and Atlantic voyage, as it cannot hugg a leeward coast, rendered the more dangerous from currents influenced by the stream of the Orinoco, and other causes.

Tobago, from its situation in lat. 11° and to windward of Trinidad with its *e.* hills forming the *s.* promontory or bluff-head of the great Gulf of Mexico, hath eminent facilities of trading within the bay, from its harbour of Courland coursing *s.* of Grenada, on Cumana and the Caracas; whilst, on the other side, a square-rigged vessel may run, without a tack, from Queen's Bay, in Tobago, to the very mouth of the Orinoco, on the *e.* coast of S. America; and with equal facility of voyage, return to the free port of Scarborough; nor is any other island so conveniently placed as a depôt, having in view a trade with Guayana, and to the river Amazon and Brazil.

But Tobago besides advantages for trade and communication with S. America, such as have been described, hath others, in intercourse with whatever sovereign power in Europe it may be subjected to.

Lying in lat. 11°, a course from Europe gaining the trade-winds, and between the tropics, might be taken by French vessels in a direction *s.* of the ordinary navigation by British ships; and so eluding that naval force, might form depôts in Tobago, of arms and troops, which might be put in action before even the arrival was known to leeward, and in the British Islands; an object of the greatest import, and which seems not to have been overlooked in the articles of the late treaty, restoring to France her W. India colonies.

It is, further, well worthy of remark, that the mountainous *e.* division of Tobago has, on experience, proved to be healthy, in proportion as the low lands to the *w.* have been found the contrary; and whilst the noble harbour in the *n. e.* quarter of the island, called Man o' War Bay, offers a rendezvous to ships of war and transports, with depth of water to the very beach, and tranquil as a mill-pond; the amphitheatre of hills forming and sheltering the bay, and fertile to their very summit—render it the most healthy station, with every accommodation of wood and water, for troops that may be landed.

Considering the danger to which shipping, and therewith the royal navy, is exposed in the W. India seas, at particular times of the year, and especially from the 1st of August to November, denominated the hurricane season, the fact is of importance, that no instance of hurricane hath been known to affect Tobago. In the year 1780, Barbadoes, only 2° *n.* was desolated by a tempestuous whirlwind, which destroyed people, buildings, and every ship throughout the W. Indies; whilst Tobago remained quiet and safe from the destructive vortex.

In the year 1782, the late Marquis de Bouillié made a most interesting report to his government, of the importance of Tobago as a military and naval station, and which was supposed to have influenced the Court of France, in so earnestly making its acquisition a condition of the then treaty.

CHAP. IV.

Intercourse of the British W. Indies with America, and in particular with the British Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.—Intercourse and Trade of the United States of America with the British W. Indies.—British Shipping employed in the W. India Trade.—Shipping belonging to the several Ports of Great Britain, from 1791 *to* 1812.*—Passage outwards to the W. Indies.—Passage homewards from the W. Indies.*

Intercourse of the British W. Indies with America, and particularly with the British provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.—It has been contended, and is to be wished, that whatever is required for the use of the British islands, should be furnished in preference, or indeed exclusively, by the Canadas, Nova Scotia, or Newfoundland. On this point, the means of providing the articles required, and the comparative expedition and facilities of conveyance, recur for consideration, in like manner as on the alternative of supply from Europe, or from America at large.

The obstructions and inconveniences to commerce between the W. Indies and more northern provinces of America, are those of nature; and will and must operate in creating a preference from islands to the *w.* and *s.*, of dealing with those countries which offer a readier access and intercourse. Jamaica would never, by choice,]

[apply to New Brunswick, for what it might procure from Philadelphia.

Moreover, to the disadvantages of longer and more perilous navigation may be added, the occasional difficulties of trading at all seasons with the Canadas at least, under embargoes from frost and climate in the higher latitudes.

But impediments or inconveniences of navigation apart, the British provinces of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland (excepting the latter, as a fishery) have never yet appeared, from the trials that have been made, to be in a state of population and settlement, or generally in a condition of country, to furnish the articles required. In the debates of the House of Commons, July 1806, on the subject of the American intercourse, it was strongly contended by an able and intelligent member, who had lately presided at the Board of Trade, 'that the British continental provinces could and would supply all the provisions and lumber required by the sugar colonies, if their trade was not checked by the competition allowed to the United States.'

The removal of such competition is undoubtedly most desirable, but the effort must be gradual, and known rather in the effect than in the cause. That the British provinces could be brought to export all the articles that their W. India brethern might require, is at least problematical. This end might, however, as far as one measure offers, be attained by that principle of political economy having for its basis the encouragement of the one, and the depression of the other, until the wants and the supplies of each should become equal and reciprocal: but whether this, or any other plan be more feasible, it is not in our province here to discuss. If it be true that the exclusion of the United States from all intercourse with the British W. Indies be a great *desideratum*, much remains to be done. The importation from the N. American colonies, compared with that from the States, has always been strikingly small. Reverting, in the first instance, to the year 1788, we find it was as follows:

An ACCOUNT of the Number of Ships, and their Tonnage, which have been employed in the Trade between the British Islands in the West Indies and the British Colonies in America, in the Year 1788, specifying the Articles imported from these Islands to the British Colonies in America, and the Quantity of Fish exported to the West Indies from Newfoundland.—Presented to the House of Commons, March 18, 1790.

		From W. Indies to British Provinces.			To W. Indies.	
Ships, inwards.	Tons.		Measure.	Quantity.	Fish, Barrels.	Fish, Quintals.
153	14,009	Indian corn	bushels	335	803½	22,196
		Chocolate	lb.	6,767		
		Cocoa	cwt.	121 cwt. 1 qr. 18lb.		
		Coffee	cwt.	794 cwt. 10lb.		
		Ginger	lb.	1,470		
		Pimento	lb.	582		
		Sugar	cwt.	9,285 cwt. 1qr. 2lb.		
		Mahogany	logs	51		
		Lignum vitæ	tons	6¾		
		Hides	number	255		
		Limes	barrels	227		
		Melasses	gallons	53,944		
		Pine-apples	dozen	12		
		Pitch and tar	barrels	770		
		Bread-flour	barrels	281		
		Onions	lb.	10,000		
		Salt *	bushels	93,328		
		Rum	gallons	493,844		
		Shooks, hogsheads	number	150		
		Staves	number	25,500		
		Cotton wool	lb.	2,250		

* From the Bahama salt-pits, probably for the fisheries of Newfoundland.]

[Supposing the item of 281 barrels of flour imported to the British continental provinces from the W. Indies, to be a mere casuality, and reserve of ships' provisions; yet, from this commercial return, it appears that, in 1788, the Canadas and Nova Scotia, under every advantage of trade and navigation, furnished no bread-flour to the W. Indies; they could not even furnish the neighbouring fisheries of Newfoundland; or wherefore else was Mr. Jenkinson's act (the 25th Geo. III. cap. 1.) passed, to admit the import of flour from the United States as a resource of necessity to the people of Newfoundland?

The export of 25,500 staves from the W. Indies, was probably for the package of Newfoundland fish; and this shews that even lumber was not furnished at the time by Nova Scotia, in quantities sufficient for sparing a full supply even to the great island in its vicinity, and much less to the W. Indies. These northern provinces have, indeed, since become more peopled, settled, and cleared of woods; and timber has been thence exported in considerable quantities, as will appear from subsequent returns. But when we come to inspect the tables of actual supply furnished to the sugar colonies by the great countries, now the United States, and observe how small a proportion, in any one year, the largest export of lumber from the British provinces bears to the total of what was required, and supplied to the sugar colonies, it cannot be doubted but the exclusion of a supply from other quarters ought to be of a slow and lenient operation.

On the medium of 10 years, from 1793 to 1803, the supply to the British W. Indies from the United States, was annually 164,680 barrels, each 196 lb. of bread flour; and, in the same period, the average supply from the British provinces was only 1,570 barrels; whilst the supply of flour from Great Britain is limited by statute to 3,200 tons, or 32,000 barrels, of 2 cwt. leaving a deficiency of this article of life of 131,110 barrels, to be supplied by the United States, supposing even Great Britain henceforward to supply its complement, though it has sent little or no flour to the the W. Indies for years past; but the British supply taken apart, as supposed at all times, the deficiency, if left to Canada and Nova Scotia, is of 163,110 barrels of bread, wanting for the usual and annual consumption of planters, British officers and soldiers, in the W. Indies.

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Provisions and Lumber imported into the British West Indies (exclusive of conquered Colonies) from the British Continental Colonies.—Return to House of Commons, May 5, 1806.

		1773.	1788.	1793.	1797.	1800.	1803.
Corn - - - -	bushels - -	- -	- -	171	847	919	1,518
Flour and meal -	barrels, 2cwt.	330	- -	1,656	1,589	320	1,374
Rice - - - - -	barrels - -	- -	- -	20	- -	68	2
Fish, dry - - -	quintals - -	4,907	22,196	99,570	27,576	61,258	1 27,62
Fish, pickled - -	barrels - -	4,107	803	24,827	9,949	14,105	23,865
Beef and pork - -	barrels - -	57	- -	349	241	181	922
Pine boards - -	feet - - -	78,013	- -	3,618,200	511,390	1,039,895	2,223,179
Scantling & timber	tons - - -	- -	- -	324	39	- -	186
Shingles - - -	number - -	61,700	- -	2,929,150	464,200	424,650	915,544
Staves - - - -	number - -	9,137	- -	151,060	41,350	173,385	235,788

The last year of the above return, to 5th January, 1803, was a year of armistice; and the consequences of a free and open navigation, as no longer obstructed by the enemy, surcharged with war freights and insurance, or restricted, from apprehensions of the impress service, are obvious in the increased exports of lumber and of fish: of other provisions there were comparatively no cargoes at any time.

Fish is an article from Newfoundland, which has, and should have, every encouragement given by the mother-country, for its production and trade. In the spring of 1806, a bounty was proposed by government, of 2*s*. on every quintal of fish imported into the W. Indies from Newfoundland; and a duty of 2*s*. per contra on fish from the United States, to be levied in the different islands.]

[In times of peace, the premium and counter-duty would operate advantageously, by securing a preference to British fish; but under the influence of a war, the efficacy and use of the measure was much abated: for, in fact, much of the fish which goes to the W. Indies, freighted in vessels of the United States, hath been caught on the banks by British fishermen, and sold at sea to the Americans, as mere factors and neutral carriers, to avoid danger from the enemy, in going further *s.* for the disposal of the cargo themselves. In this case, the duty paid has acted as an abatement on the intermediate bargain; and what is received by one part of the Newfoundland traders in the islands, has been refunded by others selling on the banks. Comparing the entries in 1800 and 1806, an absolute decline of the fishery is not to be presumed in the former period of war; but rather that a moiety of the catch of fish has been bartered and conveyed as just described. The regulation, however, of premium and counter-duty, will have its good effect in competition, on return of peace; can have no serious effect in the interval; and is altogether a measure of good policy and future use.

In regard to lumber, the price of freight on each article is so heavy in proportion to the intrinsic value of the article itself, that any surcharge on the former must greatly operate in reduction of the trade; and in times of war it will seek relief by passing to neutral bottoms. In times of peace, it appears from the returns of 1793 and 1803, that a large proportion of planks and fir may be exported from the northern British provinces.

It is not alone the apprehension of a more partial and scanty assortment of supplies from the northern countries, which may induce the W. Indians to prefer dealing with those of the United States, if free so to do; but because the latter, for their home consumption require, and take a greater quantity of W. India produce in return; especially rum, which is the general medium of traffic, and to be considered as the money with which the sugar colonist pays for the American stores required for his estate.

EXPORTS from the British sugar colonies to the British provinces in America, Canada, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.—Return to House of Commons, May 5, 1806.

	Rum.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Cotton.
	Gallons.	Cwt.	Cwt.	lb.
1787	777,360	9,019	546	1,500
1793	613,898	5,106	603	8,690
1794	525,720	4,615	80	6,304
1795	204,965	3,320	99	1,600
1796	307,124	7,332	514	1,550
1797	486,706	3,893	427	12,850
1798	384,953	4,508	802	18,250
1799	664,258	9,933	1,130	750
1800	186,449	10,660	775	4,274
1801	569,691	10,366	935	500
1802	584,673	11,397	257	14,950
1803	792,474	13,906	1,353	3,250

The above returns may be referred to a comparative view, on the taking into consideration the next branch of W. India trade, namely, that with the United States of America, and of which, as a matter in controvery, not less important to the mother-country than to its W. India colonies, we proceed to treat more largely.

Intercourse and Trade of the United States of America with the British W. Indies.—It were almost unnecessary here to state, that the vast extent of America, from Penobscot to the borders of Florida, slanting from lat. 45°, long. 67′, to the Savannah, lat. 32°, long. 80′, and offering above 1,000 miles of coast, with commodious harbours, and mouths of navigable rivers, for the convenience of trade, and concentrating the productions of the interior country, was, previous to the year 1775, an immense province of the British empire; unless it were for the sake of observing, that up to that period the people of this vast tract of continent were British subjects, sharing in the full rights and privileges of the mother-country; their vessels, by the 14th Car. II. cap. 11. were recognized as English-built; and they had free access to the British W. Indies, for the supplying from American produce, whatever might be required in the islands for subsistence and use, with exception to manufactures, and to certain enumerated articles, held in reserve by the mother-country.

The variety of productions, and convenient assortment of cargoes, from countries extending so widely *n.* and *s.*, and their facility of intercourse at all seasons, and in different tracts and]

[channels, with the W. Indies, may be presumed to have vested principally, if not exclusively, in the Americans (then subjects of Great Britain), whatever trade there was with the sugar colonies, of a description which required to be frequent and occasional, from the perishable nature of the article, and the exigency of its use and consumption: we may infer, that previous to the revolution and hostilities which commenced in 1774, America furnished to the British Islands, all, or nearly all, the provisions wanted, and other immediate necessaries of life and industry. Having then before us a correct return, with the amount of the enumerated articles supplied for the three years, to 1773 inclusive, we may assume that for provisions at least, it is nearly a full and complete account of all the supplies which the British sugar colonies required at the time.

Allowing for a greater or less proportion of each commodity to be required, on estimate of probable change in the population or circumstances of the W. India settlements, down to the present æra, we may, from an enumeration of American supplies in 1773, compute the extent of trade in various and distinct articles, which may be assumed and insisted on by Great Britain, as within the policy and system of monopoly in commerce with its colonies; or, which may be humanely and prudentially relinquished, in deference to the wants and necessities of its people, and for the advancement of the general interest, by rendering the resources of subsistence and industry safe and sure throughout all the dependencies of its empire.

The very interesting document to which we refer, has been preserved in the Reports of the Privy Council in 1784, and re-printed June 9th, 1806, by order of the House of Commons.

The trade which, previous to the year 1774, was carried on between the planters of the W. Indies and the inhabitants of North America, was not a traffic calculated to answer the fantastic calls of vanity, or to administer gratification to luxury or vice; but to procure food for the hungry, and to furnish materials (scarce less important than food) for supplying the planters in two capital objects, their buildings, and packages for their chief staple productions, sugar and rum.

For the supply of those essential articles, lumber, fish, flour, and grain, America seems to have been happily fitted, as well from internal circumstances, as her commodious situation; and it is to a neighbourly intercourse with that continent, continued during 130 years, that our sugar plantations in a great measure owe their prosperity; insomuch that, according to the opinion of a very competent judge, Mr. Long, "if the continent had been wholly in the hands of a foreign power, and the English precluded from all commerce or intercourse with it, it is a very doubtful point, whether, in such case, we should at this hour have possessed a single acre of land in the W. Indies." The following is]

[An ACCOUNT of the Total Import from North America into the British W. India Islands, in the Years 1771, 1772, and 1773, taken from an official Account signed by Mr. Stanley, Secretary to the Commissioners of the Customs in London, dated 15th March, 1775.—For Three Years, ending 5th January, 1774. N. B. Divide by three, &c. for the Yearly Supply.

		From United States.	From Canada and Nova Scotia.	From Newfoundland.
Boards and timber	feet	76,767,695	232,040	2,000
Shingles	number	59,586,194	185,000	
Staves	number	57,998,661	27,350	
Hoops	number	4,712,005	16,250	9,000
Corn	bushels	1,204,389	24	
Pease and beans	bushels	64,006	1,017	
Bread and flour	barrels	396,329	991	
Ditto ditto	kegs	13,099		
Rice	barrels	39,912		
Ditto	tierces	21,777		
Fish	hogsh.	51,344	449	2,307
Ditto	barrels	47,686	646	202
Ditto	quintals	21,500	2,958	11,764
Ditto	kegs	3,304	609	
Beef and pork	barrels	44,782	270	24
Poultry	dozen	2,739	10	
Sheep and hogs	number	13,815		
Oxen	number	3,647		
Horses	number	7,130	28	
Oil	barrels	3,189	139	118
Tar and pitch	barrels	17,024		
Masts	number	157		
Spars	number	3,074	30	
Shook casks	number	53,857	40	141
Soap and candles	boxes	20,475		
Ox-bows and yokes	number	1,540		
House frames	number	620		
Iron	tons	399½		

	Rum. Puncheons, 120 Gallons.	Sugar. Sugar, Hogsh. 13 Cwt.
The Americans took in return, in 1772	32,265	3,776
1773	43,488	5,328

It must not, however, be supposed, that the preceding table of supplies furnished to the W. Indies from America, previous to the war in 1774, comprises the total, in reference to every article enumerated. A limited proportion of corn and flour must at all times have been freighted from Great Britain; and a very considerable quantity of herrings from the British fisheries, was yearly furnished, for subsistence of the negroes in the W. Indies. Beef and pork, too, may have made some part of the cargoes; but it must be remembered, that it was by an act passed so late as the 20th Geo. III. cap. 10. that Ireland was admitted to a share in the colonial commerce: before 1780, Ireland could not export its beef, pork, and butter, direct to the British W. Indies.

The fact, however, was, that lumber and provisions were articles generally (though with some little exceptions) supplied to the British islands]

[from America, previous to the war obstructing the intercourse and trade, in 1774; and hence we may be enabled, from a consideration of the quantities of each article returned, to form a pretty accurate idea of the nature and extent of what was required at the time for the subsistence and use of the British colonists in the W. Indies.

Great Britain, whilst sovereign of North America, in relinquishing the provision trade to the W. Indies in favour of its colonial dependencies on the Continent, seemed to foster the industry and agriculture of its people in those distant provinces, and at the same time to provide for the necessities of its people at home; for it is ascertained, that the corn grown in England, is not at all times equal to the home consumption. In this, Great Britain conceded therefore a branch of export trade, which it was scarcely its interest to retain; but, what was policy, carried with it the air of liberal concession; and national pride was satisfied, that in so far relinquishing the rights of monopoly in trade with the plantations, it was a grant, and not a surrender. On the provinces of America being no longer subject, but becoming an independent and foreign power, under the name of the United States, the case was wholly altered. Immediately after the treaty of Paris, in 1783, by which the States of America were recognized as an independent and sovereign power, measures were taken in London to regulate anew the trade between America and the sugar colonies. The legislature passed an act in June, 1803, impowering the King to issue Orders in Council to this effect, under certain limitations; and on July 2, 1803, an order, so authorized, was made, 'that provisions and lumber might be carried direct from the United States to the British W. Indies, but in British ships only, and navigated according to law.'

This restriction was by the W. Indians considered as a prohibition. February 6, 1804, the W. India merchants in London petitioned the king and parliament, stating, "that the planters in the sugar colonies could neither subsist their negroes, or provide package for their produce, without supplies from America of provisions and lumber; and that a circuitous voyage by British ships *viâ* America, would not only incur a surcharge of freights and commission, most heavy on the purchaser and consumer, but that occasionally the supply might altogether fail to arrive as required, from length and contingencies of the voyage:" and further representing, "that the medium of ordinary payment in the sugar colonies for lumber and provisions was rum, which America did, and would take, but which the merchants of Great Britain would not take, to the amount required, not being an article disposable in the home market."

Government resisted all these circumstances; and, from 1784 to 1793 inclusive, the trade for all supplies to the British sugar colonies was restricted to British shipping; nor in the event, during this period of peace, were the islands so distressed, as had been presumed by the petitioners. The wants of the planters were supplied, although certainly at a dearer rate; for intermediate trade and factory always has its charge. The enhancement of price in the necessaries of life, was, however, not the only grievance: the supplies were occasionally scanty, as well as dear; and much distress, on this account, was alledged. On the other hand, Great Britain, during a period of 10 years peace, derived advantage from thus enforcing its navigation laws: the carrying trade was engrossed by British ship-owners; the British merchant had his profits of trade and commission on the articles supplied; and, in a much more considerable proportion than heretofore, the supply was of British produce, and from the British fisheries.

The following table will show the state and extent of the trade between America and the W. Indies, as affected by the regulations instituted in 1783, and sustained to 1793, inclusive; and evince how far Great Britain can at any, and the most favourable period, set limits to the commerce and intercourse which Nature, in opposition to British interests, seems to have pointed out, as suitable and belonging to the Continent of America and the W. India islands. With some allowances in exception, we may admit them for purposes of comparison and general inference, to show all that was required in the W. Indies, as supplied from America in the year 1773; and all that could be subtracted from that supply, and therefore, practically, all to be furnished by Great Britain, or by its American provinces, in 1792. In a second, and other point of view, we may examine the returns as exhibiting, from the access of trade to America in the latter years, how much of that trade Great Britain forewent and lost, by a subsequent relaxation of the letter of its navigation acts, under and by the instructions given by the executive ministers in England to governors of the colonies, that "during the war, as necessity shall require, they may issue proclamations, admitting an import to the plantations, of lumber and provisions from America, in American vessels."]

[Provisions and Lumber imported into the W. Indies (exclusive of the Conquered Colonies) from the United States of America.

Return to House of Commons, May 5, 1806.

	Measure.	1773.	1793.	1797.	1800.	1803.
Corn	bushels	401,463	241,986	333,762	445,069	647,858
Flour and meal .	bushels	136,509	130,677	178,167	163,998	431,504
Rice	do. &c.	35,081	12,797	9,116	13,052	9,393
Beef and pork .	barrels	14,927	140	11,306	24,503	49,203
Fish, dry . . .	quintals	7,167	5,025	33,934	29,169	61,124
Fish, pickled .	barrels	68,341	426	18,956	17,979	15,256
Pine boards, &c.	feet . .	25,589,232	14,647,724	10,766,826	23,161,441	29,960,623
Timber . . .	tons . .	. . . .	784	4,287	6,997	7,807
Shingles . . .	number	19,862,068	23,471,922	22,990,300	33,280,408	39,357,828
Staves . . .	number	19,332,880	6,864,400	6,498,634	12,306,793	13,519,435

It appears from the column 1793 of the preceding return, that Great Britain or Ireland, in times of peace, can furnish all the beef and pork; and that Newfoundland and the home fisheries supply most of what is required of the important article, fish; but bread, flour, and rice, (most essential to the subsistence of the planters and negroes in the W. Indies) seem in no case, and at no time, to have been fully provided, excepting from America. Of oak-staves, too, as it appears, England can furnish a considerable part of the supply.

In specifying the articles as imported into these islands, of later years, it would be desirable to ascertain more exactly the proportion exported into them from other parts comparatively with the United States, and more particularly from the British continental colonies, as being also the immediate subject of this chapter. This then, with the quantity which is taken by the specific islands, will be seen by]

[An ACCOUNT of the principal Articles of Provision and Lumber imported into the British West Indies, and Conquered Colonies in the West Indies, in the Years 1804, 1805, and 1806: distinguishing each Year, each Island or Colony respectively, and the several Countries from which such Articles were imported.

Species and Islands.	1804.				1805.				1806.			
	The United Kingdom.	British Continental Colonies.	United States of America.	Other Countries.	The United Kingdom.	British Continental Colonies.	United States of America.	Other Countries.	The United Kingdom.	British Continental Colonies.	United State of America.	Other Countries.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
CORN.—Antigua	16,048	2,025	179,065	...	25,454	...	184,628	...	34,230	...	169,201	
Barbadoes	40,894	811	26,242	1,897	26,543	936	37,657	385	53,465	604	22,683	
Dominica	8,642	...	3,828	...	7,054	123	1,767	126	9,912	...	6,961	
Grenada	13,558	...	17,626	...	10,414	234	14,987	408	21,285	314	9,966	
Jamaica	21,666	1,111	70,533	510	17,422	469	49,928	...	15,972	1,450	82,043	
Montserrat	2,499	...	4,617	...	3,574	...	2,595	1,120	6,230	...	6,325	
Nevis	5,693	...	22,846	680	7,623	...	40,680	4,227	5,035	...	14,433	
St. Kitts	17,244	...	12,619	1,300	16,498	...	13,549	1,180	31,759	...	19,299	764
St. Vincents	13,195	...	25,641	...	3,579	40	14,646	24	16,486	210	16,637	
Tortola	1,012	...	894	...	652	...	2,019	...	1,730	...	2,001	
Trinidad	3,657	101	14,304	...	5,492	534	10,751	...	7,226	...	7,991	450
Demerara	8,180	84	14,386	130	8,131	...	3,738	...	9,811	...	4,846	
St. Lucia	3,452	...	7,727	...	221	560	4,350	...	851	...	2,222	
Surinam	3,088	...	4,703	115	1,436	...	1,835	...	14,197	...	4,515	
Tobago	6,712	24	27,755	...	5,739	200	16,396	...	10,014	...	17,133	
Total	165,540	4,156	432,786	4,632	145,762	3,096	399,526	7,470	238,203	2,578	386,256	1,214
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
BREAD, FLOUR, and MEAL. Antigua	790	52	36,417	...	3,315	131	44,997	...	6,195	...	34,242	
Barbadoes	2,015	264	93,457	26	12,185	406	95,176	14	14,610	483	78,475	
Dominica	45	...	13,755	...	165	175	11,231	...	40	7	18,844	
Grenada	2,860	773	22,456	...	2,525	23	21,658	...	3,085	609	12,812	
Jamaica	12,075	1,020	165,740	...	12,960	457	102,616	...	8,405	381	142,350	
Montserrat	125	...	1,914	327	210	...	2,529	1,536	150	...	1,955	241
Nevis	1,925	...	7,213	378	2,065	...	8,088	689	2,180	...	8,682	500
St. Kitts	1,600	...	27,483	2,266	1,810	...	27,092	4,802	3,920	...	21,017	3,692
St. Vincents	610	1,373	15,578	...	100	395	18,354	299	795	...	11,212	413
Tortola	5	...	2,179	...	...	...	1,513	...	50	...	1,482	
Trinidad	160	26	42,735	...	605	430	34,377	266	965	236	25,872	511
Demerara	440	19	95,096	3,554	75	...	14,686	700	455	...	12,976	
St. Lucia	...	...	9,322	105	...	...	11,790	737	...	...	7,518	18
Surinam	20	700	20,517	...	45	49	20,291	1,295	1,040	...	13,412	
Tobago	865	9	14,345	...	995	350	9,945	640	1,015	...	7,117	
Total	23,535	4,236	568,207	6,656	37,055	2,416	424,343	10,970	42,905	1,176	397,966	5,375]

[Species and Islands.	1804. The United Kingdom.	1804. British Continental Colonies.	1804. United States of America.	1804. Other Countries.	1805. The United Kingdom.	1805. British Continental Colonies.	1805. United States of America.	1805. Other Countries.	1806. The United Kingdom.	1806. British Continental Colonies.	1806. United States of America.	1806. Other Countries.
	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.
RICE.—Antigua	...	...	458	...	9	...	189	...	2	...	439	
Barbadoes..	31	...	2,812	195	...	...	1,094	...	...	...	2,373	
Dominica...	...	...	396	...	...	...	129	...	...	...	455	
Grenada ...	...	...	395	...	...	...	471	...	...	...	436	
Jamaica.....	...	...	4,024	...	24	18	2,185	...	16	...	4,094	
Montserrat.	...	...	11	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	
Nevis	...	...	87	...	...	...	23	...	...	...	12	
St. Kitts....	...	...	243	5	...	...	263	1	1	...	238	45
St. Vincents	...	...	51	...	...	...	182	...	...	...	186	
Tortola	...	...	4	...	...	...	9	...	...	...	8	
Trinidad ...	...	...	2,259	36	...	..	501	...	...	...	985	
Demerara..		...	4,657	75	...	...	857	...	...	...	1,008	
St. Lucia...	...	...	362	...	...	...	376	...	...	...	229	
Surinam	...	...	855	...	...	...	711	60	...	...	505	
Tobago	...	...	403	...	...	...	113	...	31	...	106	1
Total.....	78	...	17,017	312	33	18	7,103	61	50	...	11,100	46
	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.
BEEF and PORK. Antigua....	1,392	70	5,634	...	3,089	...	1,913	...	3,857	...	2,135	
Barbadoes.	16,761	341	159	25	13,611	236	1,326	...	13,347	65	25	118
Dominica...	2,554	...	2,589	...	1,161	103	1,919	...	776	...	2,475	
Grenada....	1,361	...	1,875	...	572	...	2,891	...	979	133	817	
Jamaica....	29,151	633	19,332	...	26,468	314	14,157	...	32,281	1,262	9,567	
Montserrat	126	...	231	53	4	12	32	...	78	...	416	
Nevis	45	...	775	100	69	...	115	56	21	...	157	
St. Kitts....	396	...	3,700	210	437	...	694	10	222	...	1,575	37
St. Vincents	482	244	3,884	...	828	610	1,204	...	280	...	1,844	
Tortola	46	...	228	...	58	...	138	...	39	...	182	
Trinidad....	1,708	182	8,278	...	639	93	10,216	72	1,245	75	6,234	89
Demerara..	1,659	19	14,705	70	1,421	...	7,895	...	1,657	...	8,168	
St. Lucia...	193	...	1,583	...	417	...	2,031	180	240	...	1,521	
Surinam	1,332	126	5,885	82	748	128	4,543	8	1,538	...	2,246	
Tobago	97	23	2,861	...	124	253	2,316	46	250	...	1,864	
Total...	57,303	1,638	71,728	540	49,646	1,754	51,389	372	56,765	1,535	39,226	244

[The ACCOUNT of Provisions and Lumber imported into the British West Indies—*continued.*

Species and Islands.	1804.								1805.								1806.							
	The United Kingdom.		British Continental Colonies.		United States of America.		Other Countries.		The United Kingdom.		British Continental Colonies.		United States of America.		Other Countries.		The United Kingdom.		British Continental Colonies.		United States of America.		Other Countries.	
	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.	Bar.	Quint.
FISH, DRY.—Antigua..	0	16	...		0	1,542	...		17	110	55	1,433	...		...		19	16	0	2,982	0	540		
Barbadoes..	0	13	0	16,050	0	3,524	0	4,600	0	55	324	5,660	0	34	...		15	4	0	31,016	0	55		
Dominica...	6	80	10	11,355	0	3,633	...		0	22	0	3,712	0	2,005	...		...		0	2,916	218	8,351	0	28
Grenada....	0	399	0	13,112	228	1,575	...		45	542	0	18,181	0	735	...		0	616	0	19,454	0	981		
Jamaica....	257	748	137	24,586	274	44,595	0	18	134	918	10	26,240	0	27,876	0	30	186	478	0	17,408	0	25,039		
Montserrat	0	100		...	0	154	...			...	0	5	0	5	...			...		...	0	54		
Nevis	16	10		...	0	435	...			...	47	1,072	0	16	...			...	0	310	0	89		
St. Kitts ...	0	10		...	6	3,550	0	50	0	2	0	15	0	2,993	0	141	1	11	0	607	34	637	0	199
St. Vincents	50	41	0	13,878	0	3,524	...		0	3	0	13,007	0	3,443	...		0	7	0	10,955	0	2,424		
Tortola	...		...		0	437	...		0	20	...		0	450	...		17	25	...		100	488		
Trinidad....	0	15	0	5,263	0	15,110	...		0	73	0	6,315	0	20,410	0	14	0	54	0	7,717	0	20,492	0	4,420
Demerara..	174	917	0	5,994	593	46.910	...		28	832	62	14,238	145	32,604	...		87	2,380	0	15,302	0	40,562		
St. Lucia....	35	0	...		6	4,815	...		5	72	0	2,178	0	6,477	...		...		12	903	0	12,785		
Surinam	45	116	0	140	0	17,827	0	35	6	59	0	1,406	0	11,566	0	420	40	807	0	1,771	0	26,962		
Tobago	0	32	0	1,731	0	5,405	...		2	66	3	6,070	3	8,871	...		0	239	0	2,596	0	5,509	0	21
Total...	583 & 2,497		147 & 91,609		1,107 & 153,038		0	4,703	237 & 2,774		501 & 99,532		148 & 117,446		0	605	365 & 4,637		12 & 113,937		452 & 144,968		0	4,588
	Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.		Barrels.	
FISH, PICKLED } Antigua.....	20		98		2,962	...			216		803		3,427	...			152		307		3,561			
Barbadoes..	220		3,211		1,974		6		187		4,696		303	...			235		2,654		32		1,480	
Dominica...	46		224		685	...			20		515		702	...			...		311		613			
Grenada....	2,205		184		805	...			822		316		190	...			726		268		9			
Jamaica	43,853		17,691		18,161	...			43,124		12,399		11,131	...			48,858		29,416		30,834			
Montserrat	130		...		558		100		110		421		162		119		30		...		632			
Nevis.....	50		...		637		50		50		621		340	...			...		559		1,124			
St. Kitts....	1,787		414		2,399		96		1,877		310		1,291		210		1,885		618		1,603		939	
St. Vincents	293		343		778	...			338		134		236	...			176		122		841			
Tortola.....	...		...		175	...			...		...		278	...			5		...		309			
Trinidad ...	33		277		2,271	...			38		878		1,689	...			58		265		1,294			
Demerara..	285		298		5,118	...			428		338		1,217	...			967		263		2,653			
St. Lucia...	...		...		850	...			...		329		489	...			...		126		354		25	
Surinam	12		289		3,805		18		166		854		2,410	...			394		1,468		2,517			
Tobago	2,015		6		966	...			1,458		1,011		610	...			1,840		364		1,469			
Total...	50,949		23,035		42,144		270		48,829		23,625		24,525		329		55,306		36,741		47,845		2,372	

[Species and Islands.	1804. The United Kingdom.	1804. British Continental Colonies.	1804. United States of America.	1804. Other Countries.	1805. The United Kingdom.	1805. British Continental Colonies.	1805. United States of America.	1805. Other Countries.	1806. The United Kingdom.	1806. British Continental Colonies.	1806. United States of America.	1806. Other Countries.
	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.	Firkins.
BUTTER.—Antigua	672	...	38	...	692	12	92	...	1,978	...	232	
Barbadoes.	15,035	...	775	...	11,249	65	10	...	14,931	76	74	7
Dominica...	3,648	...	1,040	...	3,174	...	176	...	2,398	...	472	
Grenada....	3,019	16	68	...	818	...	240	...	1,769	72	200	
Jamaica....	21,965	39	1,867	...	14,493	...	883	...	25,904	127		
Montserrat	70	...	7	...	...	11	...	...	19			
Nevis.....	416	...	63	...	302	...	7	12	326	...	54	
St. Kitts....	2,499	...	238	30	1,034	...	443	...	901	...	364	119
St. Vincents	416	...	301	...	858	33	154	...	622	18	305	
Tortola.....	1,218	...	39	...	1,272	...	6	...	842	...	18	
Trinidad....	1,041	...	1,351	...	1,238	20	454	...	1,286	12	807	
Demerara..	805	...	3,408	15	1,742	...	1,923	...	2,297	...	2,099	
St. Lucia...	604	...	529	...	1,094	...	611	...	872	...	745	
Surinam....	978	...	943	...	2,028	50	1,116	...	2,546	...	980	
Tobago.....	76	...	400	2	80	49	369	10	217	32	243	45
Total...	52,462	55	11,047	47	40,074	240	6,484	22	56,908	337	6,593	171
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Cows & Oxen. Antigua.....	...	...	401	...	...	...	389	...	...	...	458	
Barbadoes.	1	7	1,369	...	1	...	1,499	...	...	2	1,464	83
Dominica..	...	...	235	...	...	...	253	...	...	...	416	
Grenada ...	...	...	134	48	...	...	183	34	...	...	156	12
Jamaica....	...	...	...	1,992	7	...	100	417	8	...	...	684
Montserrat	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9	
Nevis.....												
St. Kitts....	2	...	136	23	1	...	187	34	...	...	166	
St. Vincents	...	...	307	20	...	...	181	...	3	...	307	
Tortola.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	23
Trinidad....	...	...	255	...	...	...	404	...	...	...	402	
Demerara..	...	...	535	...	...	...	339	...	...	...	430	
St. Lucia...	...	...	287	...	...	...	354	...	...	...	215	
Surinam....	...	...	208	...	...	...	191	...	...	...	183	
Tobago.....	...	...	209	...	...	...	71	...	1	...	124	
Total...	3	7	4,076	2,083	9	...	4,131	485	12	2	4,330	802]

[The ACCOUNT of Provisions and Lumber imported into the British West Indies—*continued.*

Species and Islands.	1804. The United Kingdom.	1804. British Continental Colonies.	1804. United States of America.	1804. Other Countries.	1805. The United Kingdom.	1805. British Continental Colonies.	1805. United States of America.	1805. Other Countries.	1806. The United Kingdom.	1806. British Continental Colonies.	1806. United States of America.	1806. Other Countries.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Sheep & Hogs. Antigua	...	...	98	...	...	...	130	...	...	...	152	
Barbadoes.	...	...	301	...	...	...	437	...	...	...	293	34
Dominica	...	...	461	37	...	...	132	...	...	...	389	127
Grenada	...	...	175	7	...	...	160	49	...	...	125	12
Jamaica	...	...	555	337	...	...	412	194	...	...	662	136
Montserrat	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50	
Nevis	...	...	39									
St. Kitts	...	...	16	...	...	...	20	...	...	...	31	
St. Vincents	...	...	139	...	...	...	132	...	...	...	98	
Tortola	...	...	...	...	...	...	7					
Trinidad	...	...	607	...	...	...	709	...	...	...	918	
Demerara	...	...	1,601	...	...	...	263	...	...	...	477	
St. Lucia	...	...	65	...	...	...	207	...	...	...	70	
Surinam	...	100	71	20	...	...	22	...	...	...	48	
Tobago	...	...	66	...	...	34	251	...	...	...	75	
Total	...	100	4,194	401	...	34	2,882	243	...	...	3,388	309
	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.
Oak and Pine Boards and Timber. Antigua	...	17,000	1,536,457	...	...	37,000	1,808,438	...	...	1,000	2,480,470	
Barbadoes.	...	2,917	4,095,977	...	...	143,935	5,415,352	3,930	...	7,000	5,205,078	50,000
Dominica	...	3,000	2,092,675	...	...	114,459	1,502,300	...	...	...	2,945,550	4,000
Grenada	...	6,000	1,793,641	...	...	18,479	2,875,399	...	...	2,650	2,090,862	
Jamaica	...	513,743	6,353,284	2,430	...	643,500	6,813,167	...	...	753,588	9,501,734	
Montserrat	...	...	191,000	...	...	26,600	268,900	2,800	...	...	395,908	
Nevis	...	...	358,000	230	...	...	789,167	240	...	...	578,000	400
St. Kitts	...	...	1,323,542	82,960	...	...	867,911	143,000	...	...	1,523,383	12,000
St. Vincents	...	66,800	2,674,200	...	...	7,728	2,525,904	...	...	...	2,275,150	
Tortola	...	...	433,202	...	...	...	302,300	...	...	...	367,945	
Trinidad	...	78,517	3,826,756	...	...	69,683	3,500,814	...	...	6,877	2,506,423	
Demerara	...	45,550	7,531,300	...	...	3,740	4,541,350	...	...	39,000	6,539,950	
St. Lucia	...	...	1,000,547	...	...	50,200	1,792,300	...	...	1,200	912,273	2,000
Surinam	...	81,200	1,982,500	...	...	...	1,158,280	...	...	...	1,228,800	
Tobago	...	...	1,430,520	...	...	85,000	3,673,680	...	...	...	2,058,549	
Total	...	814,727	36,623,601	85,620	...	1,200,324	37,835,262	149,970	...	811,315	40,610,075	68,400]

[Species and Islands.	1804. The United Kingdom.	1804. British Continental Colonies.	1804. United States of America.	1804. Other Countries.	1805. The United Kingdom.	1805. British Continental Colonies.	1805. United States of America.	1805. Other Countries.	1806. The United Kingdom.	1806. British Continental Colonies.	1806. United States of America.	1806. Other Countries.
	Feet.	Fect.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.	Feet.
SHINGLES.—Antigua...	...	2,400	1,526,700	...	...	10,000	2,631,000	...	...	...	3,442,406	...
Barbadoes.	...	...	5,601,400	1,500	...	106,500	8,355,650	...	...	40,000	6,055,950	...
Dominica...	...	14,000	2,631,800	...	...	104,000	2,254,500	...	...	...	3,188,500	...
Grenada ...	..	...	1,328,700	...	...	...	2,391,200	...	...	21,000	2,281,400	...
Jamaica	...	124,500	12,507,430	...	...	142,800	8,572,310	...	...	208,225	17,621,756	...
Montserrat	...	...	284,000	...	...	11,000	236,000	...	...	...	597,000	...
Nevis	...	...	392,000	...	...	5,000	824,000	...	...	...	688,000	...
St. Kitts....	...	...	1,702,550	18,000	...	...	1,432,800	17,500	...	12,000	1,510,175	3,000
St.Vincents	...	20,000	1,931,000	...	...	...	1,619,700	...	...	...	3,118,000	...
Tortola	...	...	313,000	...	...	...	255,000	...	...	...	357,000	...
Trinidad ..	...	25,750	4,675,400	...	...	20,000	3,266,250	...	...	...	3,028,774	...
Demerara..	...	3,600	3,549,950	...	...	33,000	1,721,750	...	...	6,000	2,768,000	...
St. Lucia...	...	...	2,072,000	...	...	29,000	3,401,200	...	...	8,000	2,901,000	...
Surinam	...	...	288,000	...	...	...	309,000	...	...	...	224,000	...
Tobago	...	22,000	2,032,740	...	...	30,000	1,180,350	...	...	...	2,128,771	...
Total...	...	212,250	40,836,670	19,500	...	491,300	38,410,710	17,500	...	295,225	49,907,732	3,000
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
STAVES.—Antigua	...	17,800	545,798	...	...	23,950	818,090	...	...	500	952,430	
Barbadoes.	...	796,641	834,994	45,000	...	31,080	923,928	18,000	...	22,196	1,022,537	20,000
Dominica ..	...	12,840	293,000	...	...	6,450	265,000	...	...	6,500	431,700	
Grenada ...	...	9,000	539,897	...	...	15,100	843,000	...	...	14,880	920,885	
Jamaica	...	120,494	8,174,884	...	...	82,489	9,697,079	...	...	246,760	12,395,732	
Montserrat	...	...	30,500	11,000	...	3,900	119,050	...	...	...	117,600	10,000
Nevis	...	...	302,800	...	...	2,700	112,400	...	...	14,300	201,000	34,000
St. Kitts....	...	...	452,862	12,002	...	...	430,799	466,500	...	...	661,460	70,500
St.Vincents	...	15,800	977,900	...	...	30,000	673,700	105,000	...	7,400	1,460,800	1,000
Tortola	...	..	97,000	...	...	...	21,345	...	...	...	39,500	
Trinidad ...	...	7,000	436,150	...	...	30,000	618,994	...	...	9,000	845,571	
Demerara..	...	2,600	1,479,862	...	...	700	661,602	...	...	...	908,079	
St. Lucia...	...	...	187,534	...	...	5,500	327,394	...	...	...	198,500	
Surinam	...	30,400	134,743	...	...	2,000	57,700	...	...	5,800	63,000	
Tobago	...	...	816,012	...	...	1,000	715,065	...	...	...	946,187	
Total...	...	1,012,575	15,366,936	68,500	...	235,169	16,285,146	589,500	...	327,336	21,164,979	135,500

[The exports direct, of West India produce to America, in return for provisions and lumber imported, remains to be shewn.

EXPORTS direct from the West Indies to the United States of America, of Four Staple Articles.

	Rum.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Cotton.	
	Galls.	Cwts.	Cwts.	lbs.	
1773	3,869,800	49,088	—	—	Before the separation of the United States of America.
1774	5,218,560	69,225	2,863	202,200	
1787	1,575,105	20,127	3,155	3,000	British Navigation Acts in force.
1793	536,353	9,336	836	—	
1794	2,265,177	37,606	4,586	74,369	Trade licensed by proclamation, in American vessels of one deck.
1795	2,106,883	67,845	22,231	49,282	
1796	3,267,280	100,033	21,828	47,400	
1797	2,197,450	54,867	13,538	86,817	
1798	1,972,985	47,172	19,421	—	
1799	3,201,209	106,679	8,093	59,400	
1800	2,761,384	90,800	7,125	31,800	
1801	3,638,021	46,855	12,596	12,350	
1802	3,925,595	50,258	14,907	3,000	
1803	4,198,154	113,447	19,916	—	

VALUE of the above Exports in 1803.

	Quantity.	Value.
		£.
Rum, at 5*s.* current, or 3*s.* sterling per gallon, and joe the cask, galls.	4,198,154	708,960
Sugar, as 40*s.* sterling per cwt. nett from the plantation, - - cwts.	113,447	226,894
Coffee, at 4*l.* sterling per cwt. extra freight, and ditto, - - - cwts.	19,916	79,664
Cotton, at 1*s.* ditto, ditto, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - lbs.	—	—
Sundries, melasses, pimento, ginger, &c. &c. - - - - - - - - -	—	150,000
Total value of exports,	—	1,165,518

A comparative view of the nature and quantity of the articles exported from these islands to other places in question, and to Great Britain, will appear by the following document, being]

[An ACCOUNT of the Quantities of Rum, Sugar, Coffee, and Cotton-Wool, exported from the British West India Islands, from the 5th of January 1793 to the 5th of January 1803; so far as the same can be made up:—Distinguishing each Year; and, the Quantities to the United States, to the British Colonies on the Continent of America, and to Great Britain respectively.

		United States of America.	British Continental Colonies.	Great Britain.	Total.
		Gallons.	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*
Rum,	1793	536,353	613,898	3,756,800	4,907,051
	1794	2,265,177	525,720	2,806,623	5,597,520
	1795	2,106,883	204,965	1,861,886	4,173,734
	1796	3,267,280	307,124	1,993,350	5,567,754
	1797	2,197,450	486,706	1,595,008	4,279,164
	1798	1,972,985	384,953	3,866,138	6,224,076
	1799	3,201,209	664,258	2,404,982	6,270,449
	1800	2,761,384	186,449	3,283,392	6,231,225
	1801	3,638,021	569,691	3,940,859	8,148,571
	1802	3,925,595	584,673	4,166,113	8,676,381
	1803	4,198,154	792,474	3,790,868	8,781,496
		Cwt.	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*
Sugar,	1793	9,336	5,106	2,115,308	2,129,750
	1794	37,606	4,615	2,099,700	2,141,921
	1795	67,845	3,320	1,672,774	1,743,939
	1796	100,033	7,332	1,709,219	1,816,584
	1797	54,867	3,893	1,577,921	1,636,681
	1798	47,172	4,508	1,963,922	2,015,602
	1799	106,679	9,933	2,511,858	2,628,470
	1800	90,800	10,660	2,312,537	2,413,997
	1801	46,855	10,366	2,902,737	2,959,958
	1802	50,258	11,397	3,401,711	3,463,366
	1803	113,447	13,906	2,759,126	2,886,479
Coffee,	1793	866	603	90,547	92,016
	1794	4,586	80	136,341	141,007
	1795	22,331	99	122,370	144,800
	1796	21,828	514	71,744	94,086
	1797	13,538	427	100,982	114,947
	1798	19,421	802	144,852	165,075
	1799	8,093	1,130	123,036	132,259
	1800	7,125	775	172,474	180,374
	1801	12,596	935	185,828	199,359
	1802	14,907	257	214,984	230,148
	1803	19,916	1,353	152,614	173,883
		lbs.	*lbs.*	*lbs.*	*lbs.*
Cotton-Wool,	1793	- - -	8,690	9,164,893	9,173,583
	1794	74,369	6,304	8,392,502	8,473,175
	1795	49,282	1,600	11,624,613	11,675,495
	1796	47,400	1,550	8,805,463	8,854,413
	1797	86,817	12,850	6,818,486	6,918,153
	1798	- - -	18,250	7,891,582	7,909,832
	1799	59,400	750	7,469,731	7,529,881
	1800	31,800	4,274	10,575,275	10,611,349
	1801	12,350	500	11,248,164	11,261,014
	1802	3,000	14,950	8,781,941	8,799,891
	1803	- - -	3,250	5,647,365	5,650,615

Custom-House, London, May 5, 1806. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[By the act passed in July 1806, in regulation of the future intercouse between America and the W. Indies, under orders to be issued by the King in council, sugar and coffee were expunged from the list of enumerated articles before licensed for the trade, with a view of securing a monopoly to the mother-country, but the intent of which, it is feared, must have been considerably counteracted by the proximity and easy access of the foreign islands of Guadaloupe and Martinique.

For a further account of the Exports, particularly to Great Britain, the reader is referred to the next Chapter.

British Shipping employed in the W. India Trade.—The navigation acts, and particular restrictions on British ships navigated according to law, if freighted with colonial produce, having been already under our consideration, our present intention is to form such an arrangement of official documents, as may shew the extent of British shipping employed in the W. India trade; and its progressive increase not only in the number, but in the additional tonnage and dimension, of ships.

On this head, however, it may be proper to direct the reader's attention to the average size of the ships, and to the nature of their voyage, with a comparative view of other branches of British shipping and navigation.

The W. India ships will appear to be of a size suited to the employment of seamen in the line of practice and knowledge of their business, which may best fit them for future service in ships of war; whilst yet the dimensions of the shipping are not such as to require the largest oak timber, and deprive the public dock-yards in any degree of that resource which is yearly diminishing, and more difficult to procure.

The navigation from five to eight weeks, or five months out and home, has the advantage over more distant voyages, by returning the crews at certain periods within the year, for national service, if eventually so required: at the same time carrying the seamen through various climates in so short a period, and in so frequent succession, enures their habits, and fits them to bear the fatigues of duty in every quarter of the globe.

Comparative RETURN, for the Years 1787, per Report to Privy Council, 1788; and for 1804, per Return to House of Commons, March 8, 1805.

Shipping Inwards.	1787.			1804.	
	Ships.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
For Great Britain, to London,	—	252	70,418	326	104,312
Liverpool,	143	253	49,585	188	52,009
Bristol,	71				
Lancaster,	39				
Port Glasgow and Greenock,	—	70	12,022	84	17,932
	—	575	132,025	598	174,253
For Ireland, to Dublin,	—	—	—	29	6,526
Cork,	—	—	—	18	2,403
Belfast,	—	—	—	5	752
From British W. Indies,	—	—	—	650	183,934]

[Comparative Tonnage, and Size of Ships, in the West India Trade, at different Periods.

	1787.			1804.			Results, 1804-5.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Medium Tons each.	Ships.	Tons.	Medium Tons each.	Increase Number of Ships.	Increase of Tonnage.	Increase of Size of Ships in Tons.
London -	252	70,418	279	326	104,312	324	74	33,894	45
Out-ports -	253	49,585	197	188	52,009	277	D. 65	2,424	80
Scotland -	70	12,022	170	84	17,932	242	14	5,910	72
	575	132,025	- -	598	174,253	- -	23	42,228	- -

West India Shipping to Great Britain and Ireland, inward and outward, 1804. Return to House of Commons, March 18, 1805.

Irish Trade with the West Indies.

	Inward.				Outward.	
	Ships.	Ships.	Tons.	Tons each.		Ships.
Dublin - - - -	Irish - 12 British 17	29	6,526	224	Irish - - 17 British - 10	27
Cork - - - -	Irish - 10 British 8	18	2,403	134	Irish - - 25 British - 95	120
Belfast - - - -	Irish - -	3	610	203	Irish - - 5	6
Waterford, &c. -	Irish - -	2	142	71	British - 1	
		52	9,681	- -	- - -	150

The greater number of ships clearing outward from Ireland to the W. Indies, is to be attributed to British ships *(viâ* Cork especially) calling, on their passage to the sugar colonies, for their assortment of butter, salted beef, pork, &c.

Recapitulation of Shipping inward in 1804, from the Sugar Colonies.

	Ships.	Tons.	Seamen.	Medium Tons each.
Great Britain - - - -	598	174,253	13,256	288
Ireland - - - - - -	52	9,681	840	192]
Total British W. Indies -	650	183,934	14,096	
From conquered colonies -	82	13,746	1,500	
General total - - -	732	197,680	15,596	

[From the above Tables it appears that the total tonnage employed between Great Britain and the West Indies, was, viz.

Shipping Inwards.	Tons	
England and Scotland, in 1804	174,253	
Ireland	9,681	
		183,934
England and Scotland, in 1787	132,025	
Ireland, no Import permitted		
		132,025
Increase of tonnage inwards in 18 years		51,909

being equal to more than one-fifth of the whole of the tonnage inwards of 1787, exclusive of 13,746 tons from the conquered colonies.

The seamen employed in the year 1804, were, as may be seen above, 15,596—the present number (1814) including those employed in the navigation between the different islands may not be over-rated by Mr. Colquhoun at 25,000; which, allowing an equal number of tons to each man, as was the case in 1804, raises the present tonnage to upwards of 316,000 tons, being an increase of import shipping for the whole of the W. Indies of more than one-third in the last 10 years.

In 1804-5, the British shipping in the export trade to the W. Indies, was officially returned to the House of Commons in March 1805, as follows:

	Ships.	Tons.	Average Tons each Ship.	Seamen.
From London	350	107,100	306	8,400
Outports	257	70,532	276	5,140
Scotland	101	25,048	248	1,818
Ireland	129	33,900	275	2,322
Totals	837	236,510	- - -	17,680

Thus the total Shipping employed between Great Britain and her West India Colonies, in their repeated voyages, were

	Tons.	Seamen.	Tons.	Seamen.
in 1804 { Inwards	197,680	15,596		
in 1804 { Outwards	236,510	17,680		
Total			434,190	33,276
in 1814 { Inwards	316,090	25,000		
in 1814 { Outwards	334,431	25,000		
Total			650,521	50,000
Total increase			216,331	16,724

So that the shipping between Great and the W. Indies may be computed, in round numbers, to have increased one-third in the last 10 years.

Shipping belonging to the several ports of Great Britain, from 1791 *to* 1814.—The above was the amount of tonnage employed from the year 1787, including the repeated voyages of the men and vessels. A comparative view of the proportion this navigation has borne and bears to the whole of the shipping of Great Britain, will appear by]

[An ACCOUNT of the Number of Vessels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and Number of Men, usually employed in navigating the same, that belonged to the several Ports of the British Empire, on the 30th September of the following Years.

Years.	Great Britain, and Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man.			British Plantations in America and West Indies.			Ireland.			Total.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
1791 - -	12,784	1,345,636	102,417	1,685	96,557	8,260	1,176	69,230	6,638	15,645	1,511,423	117,315
1792 - -	13,082	1,366,007	103,093	1,745	103,349	8,404	1,193	69,567	6,664	16,020	1,538,923	118,161
1793 - -	13,256	1,382,031	103,624	1,896	111,213	9,490	1,181	67,790	7,737	16,333	1,561,034	120,851
1794 - -	13,422	1,390,567	102,143	2,214	133,431	10,777	1,166	65,164	6,274	16,802	1,589,162	119,194
1795 - -	13,219	1,366,904	98,747	2,376	147,259	11,985	1,099	58,765	5,598	16,694	1,572,928	116,333
1796 - -	13,380	1,403,635	102,367	2,616	158,772	13,246	1,078	56,579	5,402	17,074	1,618,986	121,015
1797 - -	13,356	1,404,651	105,068	2,498	161,000	14,218	1,048	53,181	5,104	16,902	1,618,832	124,390
1798 - -	13,606	1,443,967	109,812	2,658	170,924	14,504	1,025	49,987	4,919	17,289	1,664,878	129,235
1799 - -	13,896	1,500,678	114,400	2,996	201,742	15,982	999	49,824	4,835	17,891	1,752,244	135,217
1800 - -	14,726	1,643,208	121,712	3,077	214,458	16,580	1,003	54,262	5,062	18,806	1,911,928	143,354
1801 - -	15,387	1,733,488	127,198	3,286	228,397	17,480	1,003	54,232	5,078	19,676	2,016,117	149,756
1802 - -	16,195	1,845,364	131,568	3,265	221,944	17,589	1,030	56,496	5,058	20,490	2,123,804	154,215
1803 - -	17,003	1,927,452	134,214	2,811	180,802	14,426	1,065	58,871	5,218	20,879	2,167,125	153,858
1804 - -	17,809	2,018,999	134,121	2,844	191,509	14,492	1,061	58,060	5,176	21,714	2,268,568	153,789
1805 - -	17,960	2,035,683	137,175	3,024	190,953	15,467	1,067	56,766	5,062	22,051	2,284,402	157,704
1806 - -	18,239	2,022,369	137,696	2,867	183,800	13,244	1,076	55,545	5,081	22,182	2,263,714	156,021
1807 - -	18,275	2,039,926	139,093	2,917	184,794	13,565	1,098	56,901	5,217	22,290	2,281,621	157,875
1808 - -	18,476	2,071,437	138,700	3,066	194,423	13,081	1,104	58,959	5,324	26,646	2,324,819	157,105
1809 * -	18,801	2,111,724	141,661	3,258	204,903	13,619	1,115	58,804	5,870	25,174	2,375,431	160,650
1810 - -	19,127	2,152,011	144,622	3,450	215,383	14,157	1,126	58,650	5,416	23,703	2,426,044	164,195
1811 - -	19,345	2,188,167	142,978	3,628	227,452	14,085	1,133	59,155	5,484	24,106	2,474,774	162,547
1812 - -	19,526	2,205,627	144,739	3,470	216,068	14,971	1,111	57,104	5,320	24,107	2,478,799	165,030

* The Number of Vessels, Tons, and Men, for this Year, is estimated on a Medium of the Years 1808 and 1810.]

[In concluding our notice of the tonnage of the W. India shipping, it is generally to be observed, that in proportion to the value of the articles laden, the freight of the export is greater than that of the import trade. Charged on bulk comparatively, as on value or weight of the article, it operates to a third, to a half, or even to the full value, of sundry exports. Of hoops for binding hogsheads, all of which are supplied from Great Britain, the cost and freight are nearly equal. From examination of various and actual invoices of stores sent to the plantations, Sir William Young computes the freight (in time of war) as at least one-fourth of the invoice; and on the total export, to a yearly value of six millions; the freight is then £.1,500,000. This is a great interest; but no less beneficial to the W. Indian than to the British ship-owner, since the former were not a saving freight paid outwards, and the ship came to the islands light, or in ballast, would have a proportional surcharge to pay on the freight of his produce home.

Passage Outwards to the W. Indies.—Having cleared the British Channel, a westing is to be preferred, or *w. s. w.* course, to long. 12′, to clear Cape Finisterre, and avoid the being embayed in Biscay, or afterwards, under contingency of *w.* gales, closing on the coast of Portugal, where the W. India fleet, under convoy of the Apollo, was in great part wrecked and lost in 1804. Having made long. 13°, lat. 44°, steer *e.* or *w.* of Madeira; the latter, wind serving; but holding southing in preference, for gaining the *e.* or trade-winds, prevalent from lat. 24°, but general and certain between the tropics, from lat. 22°, and *s.* Trades gained, course direct for Barbadoes, lat. 13° 5′. long. 59° 48′.

Passage Homeward from the W. Indies.—Packets or convoys taking departure from Tortola, lat. 18° 28′. long. 64° 43′, take northing, to clear the trade-winds; safest to prefer northing to lat. 30°, for variable winds, and *w.* probable; then run *n. w.* to lat. 40° long. 45°. Clear of the great bank of Newfoundland, and thence catching prevalent *w.* winds, hold course *w. n. w.* to *n.* of Azores, or Western Isles; and from lat. 43°, long. 30°, slant *n. n. e.* to open British Channel, in lat. 49°, long. 12°; long. 8°, heave the lead, &c. &c.

Numerous fleets under convoy, in time of war, from bad sailing vessels, and others going less near to the wind between the tropics, will take a more direct northing, or may even lose a degree of longitude, whilst clearing the trades; and if *e.* then prevalent, may near the Banks of Newfoundland, and encounter heavy seas and gales: this the Jamaica convoys are most exposed to. Packets, and single merchantmen, according severally to the ability of ship and crew, will make *e.* from their departure. A passage homeward of the packet may be estimated at five weeks; of a single laden ship, at six weeks; and of convoy, at eight weeks.

CHAP. V.

TABLES *and Accounts of* IMPORTS *and* EXPORTS *of* W. INDIA STAPLES.—*Sugar.*

TABLES *and Accounts of* IMPORTS *and* EXPORTS *of* OTHER W. INDIA STAPLES, *viz.*—1. *Rum.*—2. *Coffee.*—3. *Cocoa.*—4. *Pimento.*—5. *Cotton Wool.*—6. *Dye Woods, &c.*

LATER *Accounts of the* QUANTITY *and* VALUE *of* IMPORTS *and* EXPORTS.—1. *Quantity and value of the principal articles imported from the British and foreign W. India islands*, 1805, 1807, 1810, *and* 1812.—2. *Official value of exports from Great Britain to the island of St. Domingo*, 1809 *and* 1813.—3. *Official value of exports from Great Britain to Africa*, 1810 *and* 1812.—4. *Account of the colonial staples imported into Great Britain, for the year* 1809, *distinguishing the countries from whence imported.*

TABLES *and Accounts of* IMPORTS *and* EXPORTS *of* W. INDIA STAPLES.—*Sugar.*

In treating of the staples of the W. India islands, it will not be expected in this place that we are about to enter into their botanical history. Our present object is to attempt to show how those productions have been nurtured, by the great demand they have invariably experienced, ever since the soil of these colonies was first found to be beneficial to their growth. Nothing, perhaps, will better conduce to this object than a separate and distinct consideration of the several articles as exported; and first, with regard to sugar.

Previously to the year 1760, the quantity of this article imported, from the W. India colonies into Great Britain, never exceeded much more than 1,000,000 of cwts.; but, since that period, it has progressively increased in a very considerable degree, as the following table will specify; being]

[An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of British Plantation Sugar imported into England, between the Years 1698 and 1754, and thereafter into Great Britain to the Year 1760; also, an Account, for the same Periods, of the Quantity of Raw and Refined Sugars exported: distinguishing each Year, and the Raw from the Refined.

	Imported.	Raw Sugar exported.	Refined Sugar exported.		Imported.	Raw Sugar exported.	Refined Sugar exported.
Years.	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.	Years.	Quantity.	Quantity.	Quantity.
	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwts. qrs. lbs.	Cwts. qrs. lbs.		Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.
1698	427,573 2 25	182,325 2 4	14,302 0 20	1730	818,277 1 12	95,832 0 1	21,077 2 26
1699	489,326 1 7	165,391 3 16	17,644 2 23	1731	822,844 3 15	121,904 3 18	16,511 3 18
1700	435,465 1 21	133,917 3 11	3,475 1 17	1732	1,001,784 2 0	102,274 0 5	27,008 2 5
1701	259,062 3 6	45,036 1 5	2,908 2 24	1733	695,679 3 9	44,932 0 8	13,275 0 26
1702	408,914 0 1	84,016 2 26	621 1 25	1734	903,634 2 22	69,899 2 25	21,070 1 0
1703	315,837 2 12	133,713 1 8	1,329 0 15	1735	877,591 0 24	58,569 3 26	19,706 2 24
1704	370,157 1 7	71,822 1 7	690 3 18	1736	550,900 1 10	40,779 3 17	11,331 3 6
1705	335,873 3 3	107,217 0 16	1,846 2 23	1737	864,252 1 0	49,457 1 6	9,197 1 23
1706	388,267 3 26	131,832 2 25	2,156 2 13	1738	951,073 3 4	63,149 0 3	15,881 2 10
1707	377,107 2 11	64,180 3 6	2,365 1 18	1739	706,947 0 8	67,144 2 16	15,046 1 9
1708	397,570 3 12	74,377 3 23	924 0 18	1740	886,124 1 0	68,450 0 3	19,449 3 15
1709	507,662 1 21	117,075 2 5	2,146 2 21	1741	731,410 3 11	50,231 0 10	12,599 3 24
1710	366,394 1 26	82,142 2 24	1,800 2 16	1742	895,134 1 26	151,126 3 11	26,624 3 14
1711	423,541 0 1	119,567 1 8	8,579 2 18	1743	724,411 2 14	58,198 0 19	17,687 0 2
1712	503,528 1 8	184,609 0 12	3,493 1 10	1744	655,199 3 0	78,344 3 9	17,689 0 11
1713	512,221 3 0	158,996 3 6	3,482 3 5	1745	753,472 1 19	92,826 2 22	13,616 3 27
1714	617,414 3 11	143,337 1 13	4,481 3 14	1746	608,458 2 14	51,935 1 15	10,111 0 1
1715	684,759 2 16	161,941 3 3	4,549 0 1	1747	982,588 2 13	115,727 1 11	10,801 3 21
1716	763,175 3 14	290,179 2 11	9,993 0 2	1748	933,271 3 9	127,921 1 0	30,928 2 2
1717	566,885 0 1	124,375 1 13	13,188 1 9	1749	915,344 2 5	107,964 0 22	21,846 3 15
1718	544,634 0 25	167,622 0 20	3,644 2 19	1750	825,936 2 0	43,769 3 6	22,325 2 15
1719	706,385 3 20	121,778 0 9	3,106 3 7	1751	825,121 1 16	35,712 2 16	13,508 3 20
1720	497,611 0 21	66,743 3 11	3,786 2 25	1752	1,114,084 3 26	55,687 2 6	11,224 3 7
1721	616,941 0 9	83,609 2 5	5,245 2 2	1753	859,131 2 12	42,818 2 17	12,298 1 15
1722	660,766 2 9	63,479 1 7	4,914 2 12	1754	1,202,679 3 14	110,853 0 26	14,364 2 1
1723	729,133 2 13	110,088 1 11	5,177 2 19	1755	1,051,265 3 6	206,336 2 0	30,017 3 2
1724	851,952 2 25	147,408 2 1	6,293 3 5	1756	1,230,843 0 20	70,625 0 9	16,758 0 23
1725	668,346 1 9	146,915 3 22	8,414 2 7	1757	1,145,628 2 3	220,824 3 14	62,771 3 0
1726	645,158 0 1	112,699 3 21	11,073 3 1	1758	1,199,682 2 26	174,234 0 9	107,626 2 10
1727	972,240 0 1	210,320 3 23	29,134 1 4	1759	1,374,720 2 5	143,683 1 23	58,650 3 18
1728	994,761 3 24	158,746 2 13	13,686 1 2	1760	1,491,317 3 16	593,324 0 13	108,891 1 7
1729	1,024,078 2 3	167,980 1 12	14,538 0 23				

With the gradually increasing importation about this period, we find that the home consumption kept pace pretty equally with the export. This will appear by the following table, being]

[An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Sugar imported from the W. India Colonies into Great Britain, in the under-mentioned Periods, from 1761 to 1811, both inclusive, with the Quantity exported in the same Periods; distinguishing the Export to Ireland, from the Export to all other Parts; and expressing the Sugar in Cwts. after reducing the Refined into Raw, on the principle of 34 to 20; also the Quantity remaining for the Consumption of the British Empire.

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.			Remaining for the Consumption of Great Britain and Ireland.
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.	
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
1761	1,517,727	130,811	444,228	575,039	
1762	1,428,086	100,483	366,327	466,810	
1763	1,765,838	159,230	398,407	557,637	
1764	1,488,079	125,841	371,453	497,294	
1765	1,227,159	152,616	191,756	344,372	
Annual average of five years	1,485,377	133,796	354,434	488,230	1,130,943
1771	1,492,096	207,153	82,563	289,716	
1772	1,829,721	189,555	48,678	238,233	
1773	1,804,080	200,886	37,323	238,209	
1774	2,029,725	224,733	55,481	280,214	
1775	2,021,059	272,638	190,568	463,206	
Annual average	1,835,336	218,993	82,922	301,915	1,752,414
1781	1,080,848	162,951	114,631	277,582	
1782	1,374,269	96,640	49,816	146,456	
1783	1,584,275	173,417	177,839	351,256	
1784	1,782,386	142,139	222,076	364,215	
1785	2,075,909	210,939	223,204	434,143	
Annual average	1,579,537	157,217	157,513	314,730	1,422,024
1791	1,808,950	141,291	267,397	408,688	
1792	1,980,973	115,309	508,821	624,130	
1793	2,115,308	145,223	360,005	505,228	
1794	2,330,026	153,798	792,364	946,162	
1795	1,871,368	147,609	551,788	699,397	
Annual average	2,021,325	140,646	496,075	636,721	1,525,250
1801	3,729,264	113,915	862,892	976,807	
1802	4,119,860	179,978	1,747,271	1,927,249	
1803	2,925,400	144,646	1,377,867	1,522,513	
1804	2,968,590	153,711	762,485	916,196	
1805	2,922,255	153,303	808,073	961,376	
1806	3,673,037	127,328	791,429	918,757	
Annual average	3,389,734	145,480	1,058,336	1,203,816	2,331,398
1809	3,974,185	272,943	1,223,748	1,496,691	
1810	4,759,423	102,039	1,217,310	1,319,349	
1811	3,897,221	335,468	355,602	690,870	
Annual average of three years	4,210,276	236,816	932,153	1,168,970	3,288,122

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[From whence it is further observable that the average consumption of Great Britain has always been more than two thirds of the quantity of sugar imported, and that the exportation to foreign parts, except in the unnatural check experienced from the continental system, has been always ready to take off the influx, however much it may have exceeded the demand for the home supply.

Of the quantity imported in the three last mentioned years, it may be necessary to state, that only a stipulated proportion was admissible into British consumption, to the exclusion of that imported from some of the conquered colonies; the particulars of which we subjoin in the following statement, calculated at the same time to shew the comparative quantity of the article in question yearly imported from the E. Indies.

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Sugar imported into Great Britain in each of the three Years ending January 5, 1812; distinguishing that which was imported from the E. Indies, and from those Colonies in the W. Indies whose Produce is admissible into British Consumption, from that which was imported from the other Conquered Colonies.

Years ending Jan. 5	From Colonies, the Produce of which is admissible into British Consumption.	From Colonies, the Produce of which is not admissible into British Consumption.	From the East Indies.	Total Quantity imported.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
1810	3,394,185	580,813	26,200	4,001,198
1811	3,771,060	988,363	49,240	4,808,663
1812	3,647,142	250,079	20,322	3,917,543

Custom House. WILLIAM IRVING.

The relative quantity imported from the different islands will appear by the annexed

ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Sugar imported into Great Britain, in three Years, ending July 1812, distinguishing eleven principal Islands of the Old British Colonies, from whence the same was imported, an Amount of the Sugar on hand on the 5th of January of each Year; the Net Produce of Duties on the Import (after deducting the Payments made to the Excise) and the Rate of the same per Cent. in each Year.

	Years ending 5th of January.		
	1810	1811	1812
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
Antigua	106,779	192,621	164,824
Barbadoes	139,721	181,440	155,513
Dominica	52,603	62,362	45,030
Grenada	210,068	215,886	194,409
Jamaica	1,504,631	1,611,429	1,785,005
Montserrat	21,915	41,113	22,271
Nevis	60,872	87,393	46,509
St. Kitt's	166,055	168,101	142,821
St. Vincent's	202,957	197,304	200,583
Tortola	12,695	34,000	19,388
Trinidad	157,866	166,627	104,591
Total	2,636,162	2,958,276	2,881,042
Total on hand	979,849	1,759,132	1,854,698
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Net produce of Duties	3,373,995 2 1	3,117,330 8 10	3,339,218 17 5
Ditto per cwt.	1 4 10	1 1 0¾	1 3 2]

[More specific Tables for the year ending January 5, 1813, are desirable: we therefore give an ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Sugar imported into Great Britain, in the Year ending January 5, 1813; specifying the Quantity imported from each of the Colonies, whose Produce is admissible into Home Consumption, from the Islands of Martinique, and of Guadaloupe, from the E. Indies, from Ireland; and also, the Quantity of Prize Sugar.

From whence imported.		Sugar admissible into Home Consumption at the British Plantation Duties.			Sugar not admissible into Home Consumption at the British Plantation Duties.			East India Sugar.			Total Quantity imported.		
		Cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	Cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	Cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	Cwts.	qrs.	lbs.
British West Indies.	Antigua	187,882	0	17	79	0	17	-	-	-	187,961	1	6
	Barbadoes	156,196	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	156,196	2	3
	Dominica	53,236	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	53,236	3	2
	Grenada	210,516	0	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	210,516	0	12
	Jamaica	1,455,954	2	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,455,954	2	8
	Montserrat	33,057	2	3	430	0	5	-	-	-	33,487	2	8
	Nevis	57,107	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	57,107	1	1
	St. Kitt's	149,847	2	26	857	3	11	-	-	-	150,705	2	9
	St. Vincent's	194,597	3	1	635	3	18	-	-	-	195,233	2	19
	Tortola	35,568	1	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	35,568	1	25
	Trinidad	118,407	0	11	4	0	0	-	-	-	118,411	0	11
	Bahamas	-	-	-	362	3	20	-	-	-	362	3	20
Conquered Colonies.	Demerara	227,817	0	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	227,817	0	27
	Berbice	9,082	3	27	1	0	17	-	-	-	9,084	0	16
	St. Lucia	55,016	1	1	86	0	17	-	-	-	55,102	1	18
	Surinam	95,962	3	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	95,962	3	8
	Tobago	122,778	1	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	122,778	1	6
	St. Thomas	34,061	2	11	645	0	22	-	-	-	34,706	3	5
	St. Croix	353,272	3	9	12	1	21	-	-	-	353,285	1	2
	Martinique	1	3	20	80,300	1	3	-	-	-	80,302	0	23
	Guadaloupe	1	1	22	20,000	3	16	-	-	-	20,002	1	10
The East Indies		-	-	-	-	-	-	72,607	1	8	72,607	1	8
Ireland		103	0	25	4,159	2	19	-	-	-	4,262	3	16
Other Countries		978	1	20	16,692	3	3	217	2	20	17,888	3	15
Prize Sugar		-	-	-	14,819	2	14	61	0	4	14,880	2	18
Total		3,551,449	0	5	139,088	0	7	72,886	0	4	3,763,423	0	16

The Quantity of SUGAR exported from Great Britain to all Parts in the same Year (reducing the Refined into Muscovado by the customary Rule) and distinguishing the Quantity exported to Ireland, was

	Quantity of Sugar exported.		
	To Ireland.	To other Countries.	Total.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
Raw Sugar	236,385	437,928	674,313
Refined Sugar (reduced to its proportionate Quantity of Raw)	70,407	413,442	483,849
	306,792	851,370	1,158,162]

[The AMOUNT of Duties paid on Sugar, in the same Year, together with the Amount of Drawbacks and Bounties on Sugar exported, and the Payments made to the Excise on account of Sugar used in the Distilleries and in the Breweries; distinguishing the Amount of each) was as follows:

	Gross Receipt of Duties.	Drawbacks paid.	Drawbacks paid.	Paid to the Excise on account of Sugar used in the Distilleries.	Net Produce.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Year ending January 5, 1813	5,105,685 19 7	109,953 3 7	696,184 15 3	211,335 1 6	4,088,212 19 3

Note.—The sum of £.211,335 1*s.* 6*d.* is exclusive of the duties arising on sugar used in the distilleries for the quarter ending January 5 last, amounting to £.148,273 4*s.* not yet paid over to the Excise, which sum being deducted from the net produce as above stated, reduces the actual net produce of the sugar duties in the year ending January 5, 1813, to £.3,939,939 15*s.* 3*d.* including the duties on sugar used in the breweries, the quantity of which is not required to be taken by the officers of the revenue, and cannot therefore be stated.

Custom House, London, April 27, 1813. WILLIAM IRVING.

The net duty on sugar is properly estimated on the home consumption and the price of the duty. The latter has been, of late years, exceedingly flourishing, and particularly in consequence of the prohibition of the distillation from corn. It is seen by the above tables that the price of the duty per cwt., for the three years ending 1812, was, as to the quantity admissible into British consumption, from 21 to about 25 shillings the cwt. The following table will show the progressive increase from the year 1791.

TABLE of the Prices, Charges, and Proceeds of a Hundred Weight of Sugar, at different Periods, from the work of Sir William Young.

	Ex-Duty.	Included Duty.	Charges.			Net Proceeds.		Actual Sales per Hogshead, net.	
	Gazette Price per Cwt.	Sale Price.	Duty.	Mercantile.	Total.	Per Cwt.	Per Hogshead of 13 Cwt.	Sugars, Tobago.	Sugars, St. Vincent's.
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	£. *s.* *d.*	£. *s.* *d.*	£. *s.* *d.*
1791	55 0	67 4	12 4	8 6	20 10	46 6	30 4 6	0 0 0	31 8 0
1792	57 0	69 4	12 4	8 6	20 10	48 6	31 10 6	0 0 0	32 6 0
1793	58 0	70 4	12 4	12 0	24 4	46 0	29 18 0	21 15 0	27 16 0
1794	39 0	54 0	15 0	12 0	27 0	27 0	17 11 0	16 6 0	20 16 0
1795	62 5	77 5	15 0	12 6	27 6	49 11	32 4 7	30 0 0	35 15 0
1796	62 0	77 0	15 0	12 6	27 6	44 6	32 3 6	28 5 0	34 0 0
1797	64 0	81 6	17 6	13 0	30 6	51 0	33 3 0	30 18 0	37 0 0
1798	66 8	86 0	19 4	13 0	32 4	53 8	34 17 8	34 8 0	37 18 0
1799	55 0	75 0	20 0	13 6	33 6	41 6	26 19 6	15 0 0	23 18 0
1800	54 0	74 0	20 0	13 6	33 6	40 6	26 6 6	21 10 0	23 16 0
1801	44 0	64 0	20 0	14 0	34 0	30 0	19 10 0	19 2 0	21 4 0
1802	34 0	54 5	20 0	14 0	34 0	20 5	13 5 5	14 18 0	18 14 0
1803	43 0	67 0	24 0	10 0	34 0	33 0	21 9 0	18 10 0	28 0 0
1804	53 6	80 0	26 6	14 0	40 6	39 6	25 15 6	22 0 0	27 10 0
1805	49 0	76 0	27 0	14 6	41 6	34 6	22 8 6	16 0 0	22 17 0
1806	41 0	68 0	27 0	15 0	42 0	26 0	16 18 0]	. . . . .	. . . . .

[Having thus seen the quantity of sugar imported and exported, with the amount of duty netted on the same, it may be desirable, by way of showing the distribution of the trade, to insert

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Bonded Sugar, remaining in the Warehouses on January 5, 1813, at the several Ports in Great Britain, to which the Warehousing Act extends.

	Quantity of Sugar remaining in the Warehouses, January 5, 1813.			
	British Plantation.	Foreign Plantation.	East India.	Total.
	Cwts. qrs. lbs.	Cwts. qrs. lbs.	Cwts. qrs. lbs.	Cwts. qrs. lbs.
Ports of England. London	542,920 2 16	419,257 0 15	55,657 3 27	1,017,835 3 2
Liverpool	50,170 0 4	72,224 0 18	- - - -	122,394 0 22
Bristol	11,628 1 4	1,275 3 26	- - - -	12,904 1 2
Lancaster	7,165 2 14	730 0 19	- - - -	7,895 3 5
Whitehaven	285 0 9	- - - -	- - - -	285 0 9
Hull	89 0 12	3,432 0 3	- - - -	3,521 0 15
Newcastle	983 0 27	- - - -	- - - -	983 0 27
Ports of Scotland	60,164 1 9	36,744 3 15	- - - -	96,909 0 24
Total	673,406 1 11	533,664 1 12	55,657 3 27	1,262,728 2 22

Custom House.

WILLIAM IRVING.

The following documents of the exports from, and imports into Ireland, with the duties, &c. will close the account of the valuable staple under consideration.

ACCOUNTS RESPECTING SUGAR.

IRELAND.

1.

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Sugar exported from Ireland to all Parts, in the Year ending January 5, 1813; reducing the Refined into Muscovado, according to the customary Rule; and distinguishing the Quantity exported to Great Britain.

	Sugar exported.	
	To Great Britain.	Total Export to all Parts.
	Cwts.	Cwts.
Sugar - - - - - - Muscovado - - -	5,362	22,097
Refined - reduced into Muscovado - - -	113	698
Total Exports - -	5,475	23,695

Custom House, Dublin, April 27, 1813.

WM. MARRABLE, Inspector General Imports and Exports.]

2.

[An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Sugar imported into Ireland, in the Year ending January 5, 1813; specifying the Quantity imported from each of the Colonies, whose Produce is admissible into Home Consumption from the Islands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, from the East Indies, and from Great Britain; and the Quantity of Prize Sugar.

	Muscovado. Cwts.
Great Britain	231,245
Antigua	32,614¾
Barbadoes	26,160
Demerara	13,471¼
Grenada	1,645
Jamaica	42,517½
Newfoundland	1,481¾
St. Croix	13,222
St. Kitt's	6,467½
St. Lucia	5,260
St. Vincent's	8,599
Surinam	13,995
Trinidad	22,761
Martinique	1,765
Guadaloupe	579½
East Indies	—
No Prize Sugar imported.	
Total Import	421,784¼

Custom House, Dublin, April 27, 1813.

WM. MARRABLE,
Inspector General Imports and Exports.

3.

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Bonded Sugar, January 5, 1813, in the several Ports of Ireland, to which the Warehousing Act extended.

61,476 cwt.

April 21, 1813.

W. HOWARD LEE,
Examr of Survrs and Landwrs Books.

4.

An ACCOUNT (so far as relates to the Excise Department) of the Amount of Duties paid on Sugar in Ireland, in the Year ending January 5, 1813, specifying the Amount of Drawbacks and Bounties on Sugar exported, and the Payments made to the Excise on Account of Sugar used in the Distilleries and Breweries; distinguishing the Amount of each.

Year ending.	Duties paid on Sugar.	On Sugar exported.		Payments made to the Excise on Account of Sugar used in	
		Drawbacks paid.	Bounties paid.	Distilleries.	Breweries.
January 5, 1813.	The Examiner of Customs furnished these three Columns of the Account.			None.	No account of the Brewery is kept in this Department.

The Chief Commissioners of Excise, &c. &c. &c.

JAMES VANCE,
Er Excise Office,
May 10, 1813.]

[An ACCOUNT of the Amount of Duties paid on Sugar in Ireland, in the Year ending January 5, 1813, specifying the Amount of Drawbacks and Bounties on Sugar exported, and the Payments made to the Excise on Account of Sugar used in the Distilleries and Breweries; distinguishing the Amount of each.

Year. Ending January 5, 1813.	Amount of Duty paid on Sugars imported.	Amount of Duty Drawback on Sugars exported.	Amount of Bounty paid on Irish Sugars exported.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Muscovado	519,412 10 7¼	5,106 10 9½	280 1 3
East India	2,814 12 10		
British refined	115,913 16 2½		

Custom House, Dublin, April 29, 1813.

SAMUEL WALKER, Examinator of Customs.

Other W. India Staples.—We now proceed to the consideration of the other W. India staples. The increased value and amount of their imports into Great Britain will be evident by the following tables, viz.

1. *Rum.*
2. *Coffee.*
3. *Cocoa.*
4. *Pimento.*
5. *Cotton Wool.*
6. *Dye Woods, &c.*

1. *Rum.*

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Rum imported from the W. India Colonies into Great Britain, in the under-mentioned Periods, from 1761 to 1806, both inclusive, with the Quantity exported in the same Periods; distinguishing the Export to Ireland from the Export to all other Parts.

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts	Total.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.
1761	1,011,149	10	11,827	11,837
1762	1,120,512	9,710	44,138	53,848
1763	1,310,679	365,336	97,693	463,029
1764	1,878,405	851,160	55,970	907,130
1765	2,587,829	1,291,779	63,179	1,354,958
Annual average of five years	1,581,714	503,599	54,561	558,160
1771	2,728,565	1,932,086	144,243	2,076,329
1772	2,284,163	368,672	273,301	641,973
1773	2,282,544	598,931	301,810	900,741
1774	1,890,290	393,926	295,206	689,132
1775	2,498,241	494,090	347,258	841,348
Annual average	2,336,760	757,541	272,363	1,029,904
1781	1,372,653	95,588	129,987	225,575
1782	1,740,352	110,841	413,387	524,228
1783	2,011,861	885,796	660,962	1,546,758
1784	1,994,432	314,185	202,872	517,057
1785	3,563,537	550,117	468,621	1,018,738
Annual average	2,136,567	391,305	375,166	766,471]

[An Account of the Quantity of Rum imported—*continued.*

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.
1791	2,421,199	443,187	353,801	796,988
1792	3,026,455	167,862	409,463	577,325
1793	3,756,789	112,146	304,417	416,563
1794	2,926,232	267,867	714,587	982,454
1795	1,889,842	92,482	218,299	310,781
Annual average	2,804,103	216,709	400,113	616,822
1801	4,417,765	732,784	585,104	1,317,888
1802	4,685,290	325,023	1,010,551	1,335,574
1803	3,954,770	75,206	598,596	673,802
1804	2,756,329	90,806	1,060,777	1,151,583
1805	3,586,635	92,903	743,462	836,365
1806	3,570,774	184,148	803,694	987,842
Annual average	3,828,593	250,145	800,364	1,050,509

Custom House.

WILLIAM IRVING.

The following was the Quantity of Rum imported in the Years 1809 and 1810; distinguishing the Islands and Colonies from which the Import was made.

	1809.	1810.		1809.	1810.
	Gallons.	Gallons.		Gallons.	Gallons.
Antigua	143,223	77,092	Demerara	353,370	98,442
Barbadoes	19,764	7,909	Berbice	20,355	6,193
Dominica	56,356	39,397	St. Lucia	21,632	11,416
Granada	642,310	546,895	Surinam	17,928	2,580
Jamaica	3,470,250	3,428,452	Tobago	525,327	337,433
Montserrat	51,132	48,880	Curaçoa	106	24
Nevis	52,478	67,010	St. Thomas	28,745	1,400
St. Kitt's	343,075	220,886	St. Croix	181,594	236,307
St. Vincent's	243,461	200,795	Martinique	1,110	13,617
Tortola	16,852	7,711	Guadaloupe	- -	764
Trinidad	208,677	87,741	Mariegalante		
Bahamas	26	11	St. Martin's		
Bermudas			St. Eustatia		
British West Indies	5,247,604	4,732,779	Conquered Islands and Colonies	1,150,167	708,176

Custom House.

WILLIAM IRVING.]

[2. *Coffee.*

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Coffee imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain, in the under-mentioned Periods, from 1761 to 1806, both inclusive, with the Quantity exported in the same Periods; distinguishing the Export to Ireland from the Export to all other Parts.

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1761	44,962	261	33,453	33,714
1762	77,720	333	68,428	68,761
1763	71,253	246	66,129	66,375
1764	21,041	279	29,528	29,807
1765	31,569	310	25,032	25,342
Annual average of five years	49,309	285	44,514	44,799
1771	40,026	851	38,392	39,243
1772	62,206	925	54,432	55,357
1773	44,745	63	48,776	48,839
1774	58,164	42	65,737	65,779
1775	54,935	24	40,098	40,122
Annual average	52,015	381	49,487	49,868
1781	12,783	52	13,228	13,280
1782	22,482	- -	25,303	25,303
1783	17,272	142	21,477	21,619
1784	41,147	1	39,878	39,879
1785	37,036	44	38,100	38,144
Annual average	26,144	48	27,597	27,645
1791	40,736	27	33,903	33,930
1792	69,017	46	52,798	52,844
1793	90,547	31	94,484	94,515
1794	191,828	126	150,390	150,516
1795	181,744	52	190,991	191,043
Annual average	114,774	56	104,513	104,569
1801	525,964	92	420,289	420,381
1802	384,364	62	473,098	473,160
1803	157,453	99	173,521	173,620
1804	328,013	35	240,470	246,505
1805	289,898	49	304,098	304,147
1806	497,739	460	387,163	387,623
Annual average	363,905	133	334,106	334,239

Custom-House. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[The following was the Quantity of Coffee imported in the Years 1809 and 1810, distinguishing the Islands and Colonies from which the Import was made.

	1809.		1810.	
	British Plantation.	Foreign Plantation.	British Plantation.	Foreign Plantation.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
Antigua	309	3,983	40	2,164
Barbadoes	3,471	1,345	308	9
Dominica	32,540	1,096	27,185	23
Grenada	2,892	234	1,193	
Jamaica	214,415	1,635	232,308	4,186
Montserrat				
Nevis	- -	31	18	
St. Kitt's	433	71	136	75
St. Vincent's	248	- -	327	
Tortola	- -	1,138	9	674
Trinidad	3,696	2	2,713	
Bahamas	- -	9,143	- -	4,345
Bermudas	8	988		
British West Indies	258,012	19,666	264,237	11,476
Demerara	24,528	- -	45,480	698
Berbice	17,665	- -	22,582	
St. Lucia	7,993	- -	10,011	
Surinam	57,581	368	38,731	
Tobago	3	- -	9	
Curaçoa	205	28,481	700	29,466
St. Thomas	523	18,876	1,488	59,354
St. Croix	297	1,479	31	
Martinique	- -	24,495	- -	31,991
Guadaloupe	- -	- -	376	21,712
Mariegalante	- -	- -	-	1,491
St. Martin's				
St. Eustatia				
Conquered islands and colonies	108,795	73,699	119,408	144,712

Custom-House. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[3. *Cocoa.*

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Cocoa imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain, in the under-mentioned Periods, from 1761 to 1806, both inclusive; with the Quantity exported in the same Periods; distinguishing the Export to Ireland, from the Export to all other Parts.

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
1761	3,324	168	1,551	1,719
1762	2,173	78	1,608	1,686
1763	12,783	372	9,178	9,550
1764	3,148	19	3,107	3,126
1765	2,761	166	2,163	2,239
Annual average of five years	4,837	161	3,521	3,682
1771	6,882	65	3,930	3,995
1772	6,802	150	4,653	4,803
1773	7,813	145	6,487	6,632
1774	5,808	165	4,732	4,897
1775	6,275	184	2,347	2,531
Annual average	6,716	142	4,429	4,571
1781	2,527	62	3,906	3,968
1782	847	- -	608	608
1783	3,541	8	2,496	2,504
1784	5,584	- -	2,503	2,503
1785	5,830	205	2,395	2,600
Annual average	3,665	55	2,381	2,436
1791	4,301	70	228	298
1792	3,933	81	2,664	2,745
1793	2,794	18	1,574	1,592
1794	8,797	267	2,750	3,017
1795	5,616	21	21,831	21,852
Annual average	5,088	91	5,809	5,900
1801	7,828	37	4,536	4,573
1802	6,753	113	4,249	4,362
1803	3,075	73	2,931	3,004
1804	3,483	25	829	854
1805	7,316	21	2,929	2,950
1806	7,562	- -	4,202	4,202
Annual average	6,002	45	3,279	3,324]

[4. *Pimento.*

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Pimento imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain, in the under-mentioned Periods, from 1761 to 1806, both inclusive; with the Quantity exported in the same Periods; distinguishing the Export to Ireland from the Export to all other Parts.

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1761	351,285	14,082	538,510	552,592
1762	1,541,230	5,698	760,405	766,103
1763	1,114,702	6,964	1,149,239	1,156,203
1764	1,587,400	13,671	1,574,270	1,587,941
1765	1,142,974	11,067	839,361	850,428
Annual average of five years	1,147,518	10,296	972,357	982,653
1771	1,793,154	8,952	1,633,692	1,642,644
1772	1,450,575	31,762	1,392,176	1,423,938
1773	2,282,071	6,306	2,306,695	2,313,001
1774	786,815	5,564	716,496	722,060
1775	2,530,939	3,457	2,543,591	2,547,048
Annual average	1,768,710	11,208	1,718,530	1,729,738
1781	951,262	4,248	899,427	903,675
1782	454,954	- - -	558,098	558,098
1783	917,542	404	860,334	860,738
1784	1,134,254	- - -	947,976	947,976
1785	3,282,198	14,910	2,823,093	2,838,003
Annual average	1,348,042	3,912	1,217,786	1,221,698
1791	1,159,134	751	724,807	725,558
1792	1,900,739	681	1,310,089	1,310,770
1793	1,087,416	82	963,611	963,693
1794	1,279,883	5,805	1,512,632	1,518,437
1795	1,263,818	7,151	781,868	789,019
Annual average	1,338,198	2,894	1,058,601	1,061,495
1801	1,676,542	6,393	1,235,845	1,242,238
1802	658,503	14,222	847,570	861,792
1803	1,133,477	23,485	941,589	965,074
1804	2,239,032	10,14$_{2}$	1,189,392	1,199,534
1805	540,933	6,17^{0}	817,053	823,223
1806	2,109,678	13,23$^{0}_{3}$	1,501,491	1,514,724
Annual average	1,393,027	12,274	1,088,823	1,101,097

Custom House. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[The following was the Quantity of Pimento imported in the Years 1809 and 1810; distinguishing the Islands and Colonies from which the Import was made.

	1809.	1810.
	lbs.	lbs.
Antigua		
Barbadoes		
Dominica		
Granada		
Jamaica	2,219,367	2,392,964
Montserrat		
Nevis		
St. Kitt's		
St. Vincent's		
Tortola		
Trinidad		
Bahamas	1,528	2,227
Bermudas		
British West Indies	2,220,895	2,395,191

No pimento was imported from the conquered colonies in these years.

Custom House. WILLIAM IRVING.

5. Cotton Wool.

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Cotton Wool imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain, in the under-mentioned Periods, from 1761 to 1806, both inclusive; with the Quantity exported in the same periods; distinguishing the Export to Ireland, from the Export to all other Parts.

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1761	2,995,705	165,688	166,485	332,173
1762	3,713,604	123,780	43,291	167,071
1763	2,606,594	52,848	198,644	251,492
1764	3,660,037	182,864	30,874	213,738
1765	3,715,793	66,316	12,476	78,792
Annual average of five years	3,338,346	118,299	90,354	208,653
1771	2,270,279	7,571	46,912	54,483
1772	2,287,616	5,830	34,423	40,253
1773	2,418,333	11,398	15,060	26,458
1774	3,174,964	1,050	323	1,373
1775	2,784,832	1,652	8,238	9,890
Annual average	2,587,204	5,500	20,991	26,491]

[An Account of the Quantity of Cotton Wool imported—*continued.*

Periods.	Imported.	Exported.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1781	3,136,913	94,023	2,765	96,788
1782	6,311,929	614	283,301	283,915
1783	6,100,191	3,000	2,408	5,408
1784	6,874,961	197,451	3,566	201,017
1785	8,230,761	187,929	797	188,726
Annual average of five years	6,130,951	96,603	58,567	155,170
1791	12,330,109	57,070	42,221	99,291
1792	12,576,874	476,629	343,850	820,479
1793	9,164,893	191,452	300,168	491,620
1794	10,337,245	162,670	95,321	257,991
1795	13,604,175	316,034	168,153	484,187
Annual average	11,602,659	240,771	189,942	430,713
1801	19,957,307	1,200	195,282	196,482
1802	16,284,857	30,291	135,371	165,662
1803	7,036,104	1,522	- - -	1,522
1804	20,535,574	- - -	23,632	23,632
1805	16,226,344	- - -	43,638	43,638
1806	17,712,344	- - -	27,814	27,814
Annual average	16,292,088	5,502	70,956	76,458

Custom House.

WILLIAM IRVING.

The following was the Quantity of Cotton Wool imported in the Years 1809 and 1810, distinguishing the Islands and Colonies from which the Import was made.

	1809.	1810.		1809.	1810.
	lbs.	lbs.		lbs.	lbs.
Antigua	112,016	39,880	Demerara	4,012,257	7,331,122
Barbadoes	1,359,823	1,453,738	Berbice	1,874,196	1,656,057
Dominica	75,425	59,742	St. Lucia	114,839	127,009
Grenada	1,155,979	788,362	Surinam	1,068,770	1,543,765
Jamaica	1,886,748	1,798,172	Tobago	48,791	11,818
Montserrat	29,455	48,313	Curaçoa	427,268	230,770
Nevis	17,463	11,160	St. Thomas	387,476	355,467
St. Kitt's	112,327	26,853	St. Croix	610,903	174,294
St. Vincent's	230,822	171,032	Martinique	57,453	296,523
Tortola	158,167	250,797	Guadaloupe	- - -	42,570
Trinidad	1,171,506	883,384	Mariegalante	- - -	1,810
Bahamas	1,139,793	1,348,828	St. Martin's	- - -	5,081
Bermudas	21,656	9,095	St. Eustatia	- - -	- - -
British W. Indies	7,471,180	6,889,356	Conquered Islands and Colonies	8,601,953	11,776,286

Custom House.

WILLIAM IRVING.]

[6. *Dye Woods, &c.*

An ACCOUNT of the Value of Dye Woods, and other Miscellaneous Articles, excepting Sugar, Coffee, Rum, Cocoa, Pimento, and Cotton, imported from the W. India Colonies into Great Britain, from the Year 1791 to the Year 1805, both inclusive; distinguishing each Year.

	£.
1791	218,159
1792	196,990
1793	151,020
1794	148,272
1795	169,366
1796	269,470
1797	496,340
1798	366,981
1799	509,406
1800	703,086
1801	523,732
1802	287,974
1803	253,418
1804	331,621
1805	244,764

WILLIAM IRVING.

It will be seen by the following table, founded on the documents contained in the finance accounts presented yearly to parliament, and compiled by Mr. Colquhoun that the produce imported from the British W. India colonies in the course of five years, namely the years ending January 1, 1809, 10, 11, 12, and 13, yielded a net revenue to the Exchequer, after deducting the expenses of collection, amounting to £.32,928,216.

Amount of Net Duties of Custom and Excise on the following Articles imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain and Ireland, in the Years ended January 5, 1809, 10, 11, 12, *and* 13.

	Year ended, Jan.5, 1809.		Year ended, Jan. 5, 1810.		Year ended,Jan.5, 1811.		Year ended,Jan.5, 1812.		Year ended,Jan.5, 1813.		Total.
	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£,
1 Sugar	3,813,315	497,241	3,246,586	595,995	3,014,074	348,741	2,868,232	467,949	3,580,223	522,227	18,869,583
2 Rum	1,897,136	162,266	1,897,514	548,068	2,115,232	173,311	1,620,454	77,378	1,627,269	149,818	10,269,096
3 Molasses	698	626	3,074	238	998	97	2,270	83	7,354	120	15,558
4 Coffee and Cocoa	239,792	7,150	178,911	10,966	168,140	6,825	206,103	15,458	239,124	14,759	1,087,318
5 Cotton	231,208	11,950	526,720	26,234	592,480	27,208	466,635	30,466	426,971	17,849	2,357,750
6 Ginger	3,650	584	3,472	311	2,235	428	3,808	1,123	2,405	780	18,796
7 Pimento	6,217	...	8,489	576	7,431	423	9,594	1,078	4,734	778	39,340
8 Tamarinds	955	...	1,439	....	1,365	...	1,633	...	1,482	...	6,774
9 Castor Oil	479	...	1,407	...	2,572	...	2,601	...	5,194	...	12,253
10 Fustic	2,045	...	4,146	...	5,275	...	7,197	...	5,271	...	23,934
11 Logwood	2,434	...	2,404	...	3,387	...	4,792	...	5,146	...	18,162
12 Mahogany	21,391	1,085	24,044	1,638	50,583	2,212	51,772	2,281	50,761	3,965	209,652
	*6,224,300	680,902	5,898,206	1,094,026	5,963,742	559,245	5,245,181	595,816	5,955,954	710,296	32,928,216

* These duties are exclusive of sundry small articles, as arrow-root, sweetmeats, &c. &c. not amounting to £.1000 each, and not particularly specified in the finance accounts.

Having thus given, in the preceding tables, an account of the annual imports into Great Britain, and exports from the W. India colonies from 1761 to 1806 inclusive, and having detailed the imports of each island and colony, respectively, for the two years 1809 and 1810; and also having exhibited the net revenue arising from the importation, for the last five years, it remains to give a more general or abstract view of the importance of those productions. This will best be effected by the following tables, which, whilst they show the quantity, exhibit also the value of the articles in question; whereby the reader may, by an easy approximation or comparison with the tables of official value of imports and exports in a subsequent chapter, be hereafter enabled to judge of the comparative increase or decrease of the article produced, the annual consumption of Great Britain, the value of each island or colony, and, by a further reference from those tables, the importance of the W. India colonies, compared with others in the possession of this empire.]

[*Later Accounts of the* QUANTITY *and* VALUE *of* IMPORTS *and* EXPORTS.

(1.)—*Quantity and Value of the principal Articles imported from the British and Foreign West India Islands;* 1805—1807; and 1810—1812.
(2.)—*Official Value of Exports from Great Britain to the Island of St. Domingo;* 1809—1813.
(3.)—*Official Value of Exports from Great Britain to Africa;* 1810—1812.
(4.)—*Account of the Quantity of Colonial Staples imported into Great Britain, for the Year* 1809; *distinguishing the Countries from whence imported.*

(1.)

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles imported from the British and Foreign West India Islands, for the Three Years ending 5th January 1808, *and the Three Years ending 5th January* 1812; *distinguishing each Year.*

IMPORTS into Great Britain from the West Indies; 1805, 1806, 1807.

	British Islands.		Conquered Colonies.		Foreign West Indies.		Total.	
	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.
1805.	—	£.	—	£.	—	£.	—	£.
Coffee - *Cwts.*	219,873	1,461,160	76,946	536,787	1,606	11,241	2,98,425	2,009,188
Cotton - *Lbs.*	5,681,565	207,758	11,048,706	384,907	569,104	18,377	17,299,375	6,11,042
Rum - *Galls.*	3,372,911	303,821	214,208	20,115	142	12	3,587,261	323,948
Sugar - *Cwts.*	2,583,072	3,522,165	352,264	480,550	37,816	51,996	2,973,152	4,054,711
Total - -	- -	5,494,904	- -	1,422,359	- -	81,626		6,998,889
1806.								
Coffee - *Cwts.*	280,846	1,901,059	219,483	1,510,355	5,254	33,424	505,583	3,444,838
Cotton - *Lbs.*	7,084,619	258,663	11,789,950	415,056	609,254	20,275	19,483,823	693,994
Rum - *Galls.*	3,305,738	301,035	260,021	25,310	37	3	3,565,796	326,348
Sugar - *Cwts.*	3,206,977	4,375,727	475,937	648,625	31,417	42,884	3,714,331	5,067,236
Total - -	- -	6,836,484	- -	2,599,346	- -	96,586	- -	9,532,416
1807.								
Coffee - *Cwts.*	216,835	1,449,199	107,851	742,844	54,220	3,79,542	378,906	2,571,585
Cotton - *Lbs.*	7,039,933	256,998	12,634,711	454,640	1,251,221	41,644	20,925,865	753,282
Rum - *Galls.*	4,068,875	363,754	374,739	33,104	14,870	1,239	4,458,484	398,097
Sugar - *Cwts.*	3,016,036	4,115,390	474,098	648,659	1,084	1,491	3,491,218	4,765,540
Total - -	- -	6,185,341	- -	1,879,247	- -	423,916	- -	8,488,504]

[IMPORTS into Great Britain from the West Indies, 1810, 1811, 1812.

	British Islands.		Conquered Colonies.		Foreign West Indies.		Total.	
	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.
1810.	—	£.	—	£.	—	£.	—	£.
Coffee - *Cwts.*	275,715	1,718,007	204,123	1,664,125	218,111	1,492,048	757,949	4,874,180
Cotton - *Lbs.*	6,886,697	261,340	11,778,945	438,349	582,955	22,358	19,248,597	722,047
Rum - *Galls.*	4,732,781	433,332	708,177	62,452	27	3	5,440,985	495,787
Sugar - *Cwts.*	2,964,689	4,042,428	1,389,316	1,893,735	108,516	148,520	4,462,521	6,084,683
Total - -	- -	6,455,107	- -	4,058,661	- -	1,662,929	- -	12,176,697
1811.								
Coffee - *Cwts.*	173,560	1,157,340	286,451	1,928,303	43,125	285,487	503,136	3,371,130
Cotton - *Lbs.*	4,930,012	192,182	13,346,114	467,894	588,657	22,796	18,864,783	682,872
Rum - *Galls.*	6,082,006	536,861	856,458	75,432	135	12	6,938,599	612,305
Sugar - *Cwts.*	2,883,097	3,938,119	871,378	1,185,986	25,682	34,846	3,780,157	5,158,951
Total - -	- -	5,824,502	- -	3,657,615	- -	343,141	- -	9,825,258
1812.								
Coffee - *Cwts.*	179,588	1,176,845	188,795	1,227,452	3,954	21,201	372,337	2,425,498
Cotton - *Lbs.*	1,268,002	160,808	11,414,502	419,125	45,951	1,484	15,728,455	581,417
Rum - *Galls.*	5,176,012	458,139	1,285,401	119,482	- -	- -	6,461,413	577,621
Sugar - *Cwts.*	2,654,741	3,625,094	999,047	1,356,673	498	685	3,654,286	4,982,452
Total - -	- -	5,420,886	- -	3,122,732	- -	23,370	- -	8,566,988

Note.—The Documents, containing the particulars required for the year 1813, were unfortunately destroyed at the late fire at the Custom-Houe, in London.

Custom-House, London,
27th June, 1814.

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector General of Imports and Exports.]

[(2.)

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity and Value of Goods exported from Great Britain to St. Domingo, for the last Five Years, so far as the same can be made out; distinguishing British Manufactures from Foreign Articles exported.

	Official Value of Exports from Great Britain to the Island of St. Domingo:				
	1809.	1810.	1811.	1812.	1813.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
British Produce and Manufactures -	591,935	105,684	43,163	15,109	* - -
Foreign and Colonial Merchandise -	107,128	54,422	3,520	2,760	- -
Total Exports - - - - -	699,063	160,106	46,683	17,869	- -

* *Note.*—The books, containing the particulars of the several articles exported to St. Domingo, having been destroyed by the late fire at the Custom-House, for the years 1809, 1810, and 1811; and also, the whole of the documents for the year 1813: the Inspector General is unable to make a complete return in terms of the above-mentioned order for those years. The exports to St. Domingo, in the year 1812, consisted of British cottons and linens, and a few other articles of inconsiderable value.

Custom-House, London,
27th June, 1814.

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector General of Imports and Exports.

(3.)

An ACCOUNT of the Quantity and Value of the Exports from Great Britain to Africa (exclusive of the Cape of Good Hope) in the last Three Years; distinguishing each Year.

	Official Value of Exports from Great Britain to Africa:		
	1810.	1811.	1812.
	£.	£.	£.
British Produce and Manufactures - - - - - - -	167,877	93,924	122,328
Foreign and Colonial Merchandise - - - - - -	81,741	66,824	106,645
Total Exports - - - - - - - - - - -	249,618	160,748	228,973

Note.—The books containing the particulars of the several articles exported to Africa, having been destroyed by the late fire at the Custom-House, for the years 1810 and 1811; and also, the whole of the documents for the year 1813: the Inspector General is unable to make a complete return in terms of the above-mentioned order of the Honourable House of Commons, but has submitted below, an Appendix, containing the quantities and official values of the several articles exported from Great Britain to Africa, in the year 1812; which is the only year within the period required, for which the complete return can be made.

Custom-House, London,
27th June, 1814.

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector General of Imports and Exports.]

[APPENDIX.

An ACCOUNT of the Quantities and Official Values of the several Articles exported from Great Britain to Africa (exclusive of the Cape of Good of Hope) in the Year 1812.

	Year 1812.	
	Quantity.	Official Value.
		£.
Cottons and Linens	- - - -	55,083
Guns	No. 7,807.	5,855
Gunpowder	Hs. 372,740.	11,260
Iron, Wrought and Unwrought	Cwts. 9,889.	8,763
Piece Goods of India	Pieces. 76,562.	65,603
Rum	Gallons. 55,847.	16,754
Tobacco	Lbs. 302,238.	5,667
Woollens	- - - -	12,746
Sundries	- - - -	47,242
Total	- - - -	£. 228,973

Custom House, London,
27th June, 1814.

(4.)

ACCOUNT of the Quantity of Colonial Staples imported into Great Britain, in the Year 1809; *distinguishing the Countries from whence imported.*

	Sugar.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Rum.	Pimento.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	lbs.	Gallons.	lbs.
South of Europe	- -	- -	9,754,688	- -	4,533
Ireland, Guernsey, and Jersey	- -	- -	1,166,095	- -	- -
United States of America	13,910	2,128	32,604,438	- -	- -
British West India Islands	2,650,371	281,585	7,608,847	5,334,801	2,220,895
Conquered Islands and Colonies	1,029,206	182,494	8,601,953	1,150,168	- -
Foreign West Indies	58,085	168,865	889,910	1,792	- -
Foreign Colonies in America	175,301	16,046	21,150,927	31,571	- -
East Indies	21,264	2,844	10,927,122	122	- -
Africa	- -	77	3,406	- -	- -
Prize	53,060	53,867	104,896	11,593	776
Total	4,001,197	707,906	92,812,282	6,530,047	2,226,204

Custom-House.

[CHAP. VI.

Introduction.—Trade between Great Britain and the British plantations, the W. Indies, and N. and S. America, but exclusive of those colonies now the United States, from 1697 *to* 1759.—*Trade between Great Britain and her colonies in N. America, exclusively of those now the United States, for* 53 *years, from* 1760 *to* 1812, *inclusive.—Trade of Great Britain with the British and Foreign W. Indies, and Foreign America, for* 53 *years, from* 1760 *to* 1812, *inclusive.—Results of the foregoing tables.—Trade of the W. Indies and America with Great Britain compared with that to other parts.—Account of the official value of the imports and exports between Great Britain and the British W. Indies (including the conquered islands and colonies) in the years* 1809 *and* 1810; *distinguishing each island and colony (Table* A.*)—Account of the real value of exports from Great Britain to all parts of the world, in the seven years ending* 1811, *distinguishing British produce and manufactures from foreign and colonial merchandise; and distinguishing the amount to the N. of Europe, to Spain, to Portugal, to other parts of Europe, to Asia, to Africa, to the United States of America, and to all other parts of America (Table* B.*)—Account of the value of all imports to, and all exports from, Great Britain, in the years* 1805, 1806, 1807, 1808, 1809, 1810; *distinguishing each year, the real from the official value; and also the imports from, and exports to, the Continent of Europe, the W. Indies, America, Africa, Asia and Ireland respectively (Table* C.*)*

Introduction.—Though much has been written, and innumerable are the authors who have treated on the subject of trade, it is questionable whether, in an abstract sense, any more real or solid information has been given to the public than in the tables published by Sir Charles Whitworth. With some necessary illustrations and many additions it is, therefore, proposed that this chapter on the general imports and exports of Great Britain should consist. The importance of the W. Indies and America, in a commercial view, is generally appreciated; but it is questionable whether it has been so to the extent it may have deserved. Many able treatises have been written on the subject; but their information will be found, for the most part, of a passing and temporary nature. The specific relations of a colony or country with itself and with others is only to be estimated by reverting to the whole period of the intercourse that has existed between them. This the reader may be enabled to do with the colonies and countries in question, by the following documents.

Trade between Great Britain and the British Plantations, the West Indies, and North and South America, but exclusive of those Colonies now the United States, from 1697 to 1759.

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.		Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
1697	340,928	150,006	191,528	606	1716	1,182,154	534,217	738,294	90,357
1698	649,936	331,598	326,600	10,242	1717	1,421,499	614,580	894,745	87,826
1699	673,117	354,921	319,335	1,139	1718	1,037,150	628,036	623,710	214,596
1700	842,030	345,070	496,960		1719	958,843	362,948	683,085	87,190
1701	756,059	355,682	402,430	1,653	1720	1,198,821	323,114	952,854	77,147
1702	489,836	267,128	223,530	822	1721	932,235	381,233	690,229	139,227
1703	693,137	297,264	395,873		1722	1,120,339	644,727	809,283	333,671
1704	506,583	313,795	230,111	37,323	1723	1,204,042	680,152	838,892	315,002
1705	709,273	359,486	450,384	100,597	1724	1,430,264	628,607	951,954	150,297
1706	553,321	305,609	285,441	37,729	1725	1,491,860	889,829	1,064,329	462,298
1707	628,362	317,170	340,255	29,063	1726	1,277,857	453,123	945,380	120,646
1708	608,247	359,864	300,010	51,627	1727	1,195,297	399,297	914,018	118,018
1709	669,945	446,946	297,670	74,671	1728	1,621,920	577,118	1,236,113	191,311
1710	806,459	260,186	577,880	31,607	1729	1,647,850	640,250	1,202,505	194,905
1711	570,924	287,254	335,148	51,478	1730	1,870,150	808,945	1,320,626	259,421
1712	720,681	355,369	399,148	33,836	1731	1,639,337	446,092	1,308,962	115,717
1713	833,790	510,751	448,546	125,507	1732	1,511,706	649,148	1,152,466	289,908
1714	885,465	534,925	524,760	174,220	1733	1,820,107	441,566	1,509,481	130,940
1715	1,031,456	623,765	711,332	303,641	1734	1,305,850	491,330	974,374	159,854]

[Trade between Great Britain and the British Plantations—*continued.*

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.		Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
1735	1,662,304	576,827	1,240,086	154,609	1749	1,644,538	911,940	934,976	202,378
1736	1,664,477	611,290	1,250,217	197,030	1750	1,718,821	699,959	1,047,153	28,291
1737	1,156,268	550,310	830,009	224,051	1751	1,701,680	820,070	936,973	55,363
1738	1,634,485	510,550	1,300,044	176,109	1752	1,730,032	880,548	878,871	29,387
1739	1,882,098	556,392	1,532,801	207,095	1753	2,077,531	1,092,842	1,083,196	98,507
1740	1,470,014	851,760	936,459	318,205	1754	1,792,463	856,275	949,001	12,813
1741	1,653,033	1,082,187	989,167	418,321	1755	2,238,931	913,084	1,353,536	27,639
1742	1,382,621	1,141,523	712,197	471,099	1756	1,941,680	962,791	1,026,467	47,578
1743	1,654,789	914,757	1,092,924	352,892	1757	2,046,047	1,067,620	1,137,644	159,217
1744	1,361,388	588,469	995,107	222,188	1758	2,022,615	1,176,942	994,011	148,338
1745	1,141,605	565,141	757,409	180,945	1759	2,186,143	1,351,815	970,290	135,962
1746	1,236,174	968,637	660,354	392,817					
1747	1,063,234	837,048	572,646	346,460		30,700,423	38,820,647	51,444,499	9,564,723
1748	1,799,952	960,569	1,192,720	353,337			Excess of Imports £.		41,879,776

Up to this period the balance of trade against England with her colonies in America and the W. Indies, had never exceeded about a million and a quarter. The first considerable import was in the year 1715, when it arose to £.1,031,456, having been in the previous year only £.885,465; and since that time the annual amount continued much higher than that of any equal number of preceding years, reaching, in 1730, to £.1,870,150; though it shortly after fell to and continued, up to the year 1753, at nearly an average of one million and an half annually. On the whole it was remarkable for its steadiness during the entire period of 63 years, the average annual excess of imports over the exports having been to the value of £.664,758.

Trade between Great Britain and her Colonies in North America, exclusively of those now the United States, for 53 years, from 1760 to 1812 inclusive.

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.		Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
1760	35,364	177,040	- -	141,676	1777	119,790	1,638,591	- -	1,518,801
1761	50,689	349,524	- -	298,835	1778	130,900	1,029,033	- -	898,133
1762	68,779	213,059	- -	144,280	1779	134,723	841,839	- -	707,116
1763	427,824	225,339	202,485	- -	1780	119,550	836,841	- -	717,291
1764	84,409	343,301	- -	258,892	1781	118,929	535,601	- -	416,672
1765	93,781	337,476	- -	243,695	1782	222,861	701,661	- -	478,800
1766	103,823	451,726	- -	347,903	1783	149,973	732,312	- -	582,339
1767	101,869	270,975	- -	169,106	1784	177,733	705,150	- -	527,417
1768	94,774	182,432	- -	87,658	1785	204,009	651,235	- -	447,226
1769	103,626	262,442	- -	158,816	1786	197,258	748,251	- -	550,993
1770	104,047	372,399	- -	268,352	1787	241,673	850,459	- -	608,786
1771	99,403	317,760	- -	218,357	1788	246,021	835,939	- -	589,918
1772	128,545	352,792	- -	224,247	1789	226,844	809,084	- -	582,240
1773	121,145	429,096	- -	307,951	1790	229,562	766,983	- -	537,421
1774	135,479	437,330	- -	301,851	1791	236,796	831,246	- -	594,450
1775	124,579	657,395	- -	532,816	1792	248,244	1,055,830	- -	807,586
1776	118,532	828,187	- -	709,655	1793	200,384	822,408	- -	622,024]

[Trade between Great Britain and North America—*continued.*

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
1794	233,812	868,325	- -	634,513
1795	287,067	913,335	- -	626,268
1796	238,512	927,667	- -	689,155
1797	243,974	958,746	- -	714,772
1798	273,010	1,130,588	- -	857,578
1799	255,157	1,403,323	- -	1,148,166
1800	346,375	895,063	- -	548,688
1801	558,805	1,300,169	- -	741,364
1802	429,354	1,582,235	- -	1,152,881
1803	327,960	1,082,144	- -	754,184
1804	377,790	1,056,461	- -	678,671
1805	293,515	865,364	- -	571,849
1806	330,092	950,663	- -	620,571
1807	449,730	1,061,128	- -	611.398
1808	826,989	1,125,059	- -	298,070
1809	678,361	1,748,116	- -	1,069,755
1810	885,046	1,844,559	- -	959,513
1811	802,163	1,909,689	- -	1,107,526
1812	719,683	1,419,019	- -	699,336
1813	*			
	13,759,313	43,642,389	202,485	30,085,561
				202,485

Excess of Exports for 53 years to 1812 - - - £. 29,883,076

* The documents for this year were destroyed at the late fire at the Custom-House.

WILLIAM IRVING.

Trade of Great Britain with the BRITISH and FOREIGN WEST INDIES, and FOREIGN AMERICA, for 53 years, from 1760 to 1812.

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
1760	2,286,104	1,375,750	910,354	
1761	2,445,585	1,088,153	1,357,432	
1762	2,590,014	1,404,654	1,185,360	
1763	3,274,479	1,156,500	2,117,979	
1764	2,453,462	933,479	1,519,983	
1765	2,298,723	1,049,165	1,249,558	
1766	2,835,311	1,079,912	1,755,399	
1767	2,733,907	1,088,810	1,645,097	
1768	3,005,550	1,221,192	1,784,358	
1769	2,793,916	1,304,400	1,489,516	
1770	3,240,982	1,344,224	1,896,758	
1771	2,772,274	1,196,112	1,576,162	
1772	3,370,894	1,435,780	1,935,114	
1773	2,785,273	1,332,946	1,452,327	
1774	3,508,957	1,448,310	2,060,647	
1775	3,595,878	1,818,276	1,777,602	
1776	2,749,288	1,261,562	1,487,726	
1777	2,750,205	1,265,189	1,485,016	
1778	2,868,337	1,089,324	1,779,013	
1779	2,711,733	1,150,563	1,561,170	
1780	2,450,585	1,624,348	826,237	
1781	1,923,020	1,024,859	898,161	
1782	2,518,379	1,530,917	987,462	
1783	2,861,503	1,677,641	1,183,862	
1784	3,358,544	1,099,038	2,259,506	
1785	4,113,826	1,079,668	3,034,158	
1786	3,291,955	1,168,394	2,123,561	
1787	3,527,372	1,445,711	2,081,661	
1788	4,012,490	1,469,979	2,542,511	
1789	3,765,189	1,478,704	2,286,485	
1790	3,710,340	1,613,999	2,096,341	
1791	3,435,698	2,222,867	1,212,831	
1792	3,963,769	2,521,139	1,442,630	
1793	4,220,889	2,234,248	1,986,641	
1794	5,258,526	3,333,214	1,925,312	
1795	4,626,095	2,434,620	2,191,475	
1796	4,634,790	3,592,633	1,042,157	
1797	5,177,094	3,274,385	1,902,709	
1798	6,220,416	5,634,130	586,286	
1799	6,962,376	5,855,774	1,106,602	
1800	8,308,750	3,932,766	4,375,984	
1801	11,056,376	4,701,010	6,355,366	
1802	10,235,201	3,979,258	6,255,943	
1803	6,487,160	2,573,338	3,913,832	
1804	8,165,274	4,722,435	3,442,839	
1805	7,390,329	4,126,510	3,263,819	
1806	9,918,378	5,368,226	4,550,152	
1807	9,007,516	5,475,581	3,531,935	
1808	10,742,052	7,585,572	3,156,480	
1809	11,036,043	8,776,404	2,259,639	
1810	12,809,244	7,357,398	5,451,846	
1811	12,286,576	7,169,742	5,116,834	
1812	9,958,742	8,882,301	1,076,441	
1813	*			
	215,764,772	124,471,885	91,292,887	

Excess of imports for 53 years, to 1812.

* The documents for this year were destroyed at the late fire at the Custom-House, in London. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[*Results of the foregoing tables.*—Taking the aggregate amounts of the two preceding tables, we find that the total value of imports and exports, with the N. American colonies, and the W. Indies, for the last 53 years, have been as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.	Imports Excess.	Exports Excess.
North American colonies - - - - -	13,759,313	43,642,389	202,485	30,085,561
British and Foreign West Indies - -	215,764,772	124,471,885	91,292,887	
£.	229,524,085	168,114,274	91,495,372	30,085,561

Making the total excess of imports £.61,409,811, for 53 years; which, at an annual average, gives £.1,158,675, being an increase of the annual average of the former period of 63 years, including the whole of America and the W. Indies, except the United States, of £.493,917, or nearly double the amount of the annual average of the said period.

But what chiefly excites our attention in the two last tables is, that the colonies of N. America appear, with the exception of the year 1763, invariably to have thrown a balance into the hands of the parent state, whilst the intercourse with the W. Indies seems to have left one to be provided for. The fact, however, is, that in the latter instance, the apparent balance against this country was in reality a remittance of property belonging to its subjects; and in the former, the balance in favour of it arose from a constant transfer of British capital to America: not but that great exceptions are, in either case, to be allowed, as will appear by the subsequent illustration of the subject.

It may be also worthy of remark, that, whilst the excess of exports to the N. American colonies has been so regular up to the lastest period, as that, taking the average of the last 12 years, it has amounted to only nine millions and a quarter, the three average periods of 12 years each preceding being upwards of six millions and an half, which is as about nine to six in favour of the last 12 years—the excess of imports from the W. Indies in reference to the same data, has given an increase of as about five to one, or £.51,985,638 to £.11,942,224, in favour of the last 12 years ending 1812—and it will be evident that, differing as both the tables do in their result, they distinctively and unitedly bear testimony to the vigour which, under all circumstances, domestic or foreign, the British commerce with that hemisphere has never failed to have been directed.

Trade of West Indies and America with Great Britain, compared with that to other parts.—Another view of the importance of this intercourse will be evident from its comparison with that of Great Britain with other parts.

Confining ourselves, in the first instance, to the W. India islands, we find that if we take the total amount of imports from, and exports to those colonies at their real value, it will be equal to one fourth of the aggregate commerce of the United Kingdom. An observation thus generalised, is, however, far from affording a just medium for estimating the value of a commercial intercourse, but, as far as it goes, it bears ample testimony of the value of such colonies to the parent state.

British West India Colonies and Conquered Colonies, (1812.)

	British W. India Colonies.	Conquered Colonies.	Totals.
Real value of imports into the United Kingdom, (so estimated by Colquhoun) - -	10,387,144	5,346,971	15,734,115
Real value of exports from the United Kingdom, (so estimated by Colquhoun) - -	5,979,940	2,502,562	8,482,502
Total of imports and exports -	16,367,084	7,849,533	24,216,617]

[Official value of imports into the United Kingdom, from all parts, 1812, (as by table in General Preface)	28,595,426
Official value of exports from the United Kingdom, to all parts, 1812, (as by table in General Preface)	43,243,173
	71,838,599
Add three eighths to bring the same to *real* value*	27,009,473
	£.98,848,072

Although to determine the real value of an intercourse with any particular country, in all its branches, would require a very diffuse and elaborate treatise; there are, nevertheless, some general principles or facts of a very satisfactory and leading nature to authorize us in our conclusions. Thus, in comparing the specific amount of British manufactures and merchandise exported to one part with that exported to another, it is evident that the part to which the greater quantity is exported, affords, so far, the most lucrative trade to this country; and, in striking the general balance of the real value of the imports and the exports, it is obvious that the country throwing the largest into the hands of Great Britain, is the one, whose intercourse is, in that light, most advantageous. On both these principles then, it will be seen how much more highly the commerce of the Western hemisphere is to be estimated than that of all the rest of the world.

By the table B (infra) it appears that the real value of the British manufactures exported for seven years, ending 1811, was £.300,808,330, viz.

	£.	Seven Years. £.	Annual average. £.
To the United States	60,509,654	151,784,399	21,683,485
To America and the W. Indies	91,274,745		
To all other parts		149,023,931	21,289,133
Giving an excess of exports of British manufactures to the Western Hemisphere of		£.2,760,468	394,352

Considering abstractedly the amount of foreign and colonial produce re-exported from Great Britain, we find by the table B (infra) that the proportion taken by America and the W. Indies is very considerable; being about one sixth of the whole of such re-export; as will thus appear.

Re-export of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise to all Parts.

	Seven years, ending 1811. £.	Annual average. £.
To the United States	1,757,014	1,545,003
To America and the W. Indies	9,058.011	
To all other parts	65,626,805	9,375,258
Totals	76,441,830	10,920,261

But the real balance of trade derived by Great Britain in her intercourse with the Western Hemisphere, compared with that with all other parts, may be precisely estimated from the official table C (infra). By this it appears, that

	Seven years, ending 1811.† £.	Annual average. £.
The real value of the exports to the United States and W. Indies, was	176,782,145	25,254,591
The real value of the imports from idem idem	146,568,763	20,938,394
Giving a balance in favour of Great Britain of	30,213,382	4,316,197
The real value of the imports from all other parts, was 265,782,232		37,968,890
The real value of the exports to idem idem 219,230,804		31,318,686
Giving a balance against Britain of	46,551,428	6,650,204
And shewing the difference of value between the trade of the Western Hemisphere and that of all other parts to Great Britain, to be	76,764,810	10,966,401

* The proportion of real to official value appears from returns made to the House of Commons, and presented by Mr. Irving, April, 8, 1806. By these it seems that the real is to the official value as 40 to 25, or 8 to 5.

† The imports and exports of the year 1811 are averaged at those for 1810.]

[We shall conclude the interesting subject of this chapter, with the following authentic tables, already referred to, and from which, it is hoped, that such as are engaged in statistical calculations will derive much valuable information.

Table (A.)

ACCOUNT of the Official Value of the Imports and Exports between Great Britain and the British West Indies (including the conquered Islands and Colonies) in the Year 1809 and 1810; distinguishing each island and colony.

	1809.		1810.	
	Official Value of		Official Value of	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Antigua	198,121	216,000	285,458	182,392
Barbadoes	288,412	450,760	311,400	271,597
Dominica	315,584	161,291	282,002	39,686
Grenada	439,453	189,800	388,936	173,366
Jamaica	4,068,897	3,033,234	4,303,337	2,303,579
Montserrat	35,407	10,460	62,462	16,816
Nevis	89,062	20,500	126,443	11,764
Saint Kitt's	266,064	132,845	253,611	89,362
Saint Vincent's	307,829	82,408	295,509	96,872
Tortola	33,399	52,009	61,520	6,612
Trinidad	328,512	579,719	300,999	357,073
Bahamas	133,515	504,567	108,483	481,372
Bermudas	11,648	34,279	1,137	36,613
British West Indies	6,515,903	5,467,872	6,781,299	4,067,104
Demerara	550,871	278,998	778,404	346,783
Berbice	193,663	49,662	191,556	51,785
Saint Lucia	120,431	35,569	193,743	43,830
Surinam	630,028	257,211	496,934	244,197
Tobago	226,824	70,585	201,169	70,787
Curaçoa	241,675	316,696	236,181	263,996
Saint Thomas	194,121	886,810	437,030	862,585
Saint Croix	435,378	84,964	422,033	89,949
Martinique	519,817	496,360	635,664	791,773
Conquered Islands and Colonies	3,112,808	2,476,855	4,146,740	2,866,535
Total	9,628,711	7,944,727	10,928,039	6,933,639

Custom-House. JOHN GLOVER.]

[TABLE (B.)

ACCOUNT of the real Value of Exports from Great Britain to all Parts of the World, in the Seven Years ending 1811; distinguishing British Produce and Manufactures from Foreign and Colonial Merchandise; and distinguishing the Amount to the North of Europe, to Spain, to Portugal, to other Parts of Europe, to Asia, to Africa, to the United States of America, and to all other Parts of America.

		Real Value of Exports from Great Britain to									
		The North of Europe (including France.	Spain.	Portugal.	Gibraltar and Malta, Sicily, the Levant, &c.	Ireland, and the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man.	Asia.	Africa.	The United States of America.	Other Parts of America (including the West Indies).	All Parts of the World.
British Produce and Manufactures.	1805	10,316,384	47,010	1,849,604	1,412,678	4,999,795	2,904,584	756,060	11,011,409	7,771,418	41,068,942
	1806	7,572,409	32,470	1,701,772	2,056,984	4,509,446	2,937,895	1,163,744	12,389,488	10,877,968	43,242,176
	1807	5,085,962	28,886	971,052	2,916,337	5,066,998	3,359,226	765,468	11,846,513	10,439,423	40,479,865
	1808	2,162,434	859,366	426,122	5,568,111	5,874,080	3,524,823	633,125	5,241,739	16,591,871	40,881,671
	1809	5,704,537	2,377,695	804,022	6,963,195	5,448,309	2,867,832	804,452	7,258,500	18,014,219	50,242,761
	1810	7,702,390	1,407,609	1,308,216	5,209,591	4,214,513	2,977,366	595,031	10,920,752	15,640,166	49,975,634
	1811	1,498,688	1,230,321	4,650,703	5,454,968	5,023,732	2,941,194	336,742	1,841,253	11,939,680	34,917,281
Foreign & Colonial Merchandise.	1805	6,331,090	139,650	178,046	161,478	1,400,568	207,164	400,895	435,530	785,768	10,040,189
	1806	5,856,275	29,835	75,777	221,721	1,304,204	321,939	491,298	476,063	1,009,593	9,786,705
	1807	5,733,767	76,482	199,169	408,859	1,965,274	196,166	257,277	251,429	914,373	10,002,796
	1808	3,269,098	257,687	174,015	1,266,290	2,097,614	193,990	187,069	61,127	1,581,185	9,088,075
	1809	8,870,446	657,350	320,076	1,493,016	2,117,290	122,608	172,420	202,268	1,819,477	15,774,951
	1810	6,155,556	336,312	920,617	1,184,276	1,550,951	139,709	98,880	296,933	2,043,541	12,726,775
	1811	1,984,403	265,544	1,514,155	1,938,422	2,186,967	122,777	72,333	33,664	904,074	9,022,339
Total Exports.	1805	16,647,474	186,660	2,027,650	1,574,156	6,400,363	3,111,748	1,156,955	11,446,939	8,557,186	51,109,131
	1806	13,428,684	62,305	1,777,549	2,278,705	5,813,650	3,259,834	1,655,042	12,865,551	11,887,561	53,028,881
	1807	10,819,729	105,368	1,170,221	3,325,196	7,032,272	3,555,392	1,022,745	12,097,942	11,353,796	50,482,661
	1808	5,431,532	1,117,053	600,137	6,834,401	7,971,694	3,718,813	820,194	5,302,866	18,173,056	49,969,746
	1809	14,574,983	3,035,045	1,124,098	8,456,211	7,565,599	2,990,440	976,872	7,460,768	19,833,696	66,017,712
	1810	13,857,946	1,743,921	2,228,833	6,393,867	5,763,464	3,117,075	693,911	11,217,685	17,683,707	62,702,409
	1811	3,483,091	1,495,865	6,164,858	7,393,390	7,210,699	3,063,971	409,075	1,874,917	12,843,754	43,939,620

Custom House. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[TABLE (C.)

ACCOUNT of the Value of all Imports into, and all Exports from, Great Britain, in the Years 1805, 1806, 1807, 1808, 1809, and 1810; distinguishing each Year; the real from the official Value; and also, the Imports from and the Exports to the Continent of Europe, the West Indies, America, Africa, Asia, and Ireland respectively.

Official Value of Imports.

	1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.	1809.	1810.	Total of five years, from 1806.
Continent of Europe	10,008,649	8,197,256	7,973,510	4,210,671	9,550,538	12,476,137	42,408,112
Ireland and Isles of Guernsey, Jersey and Man	3,113,549	3,352,907	3,606,416	4,072,284	3,693,169	3,702,119	18,426,895
Asia	6,072,313	3,755,397	3,401,701	5,853,461	3,366,343	4,709,868	21,086,770
Africa	106,845	115,948	122,048	143,276	184,651	257,387	823,310
America	2,125,702	2,453,455	3,611,194	2,536,969	4,641,513	5,909,771	19,152,902
West Indies	7,390,329	9,918,378	9,007,516	10,742,052	11,036,043	12,809,244	53,513,233
The Whale Fisheries	360,217	306,628	294,421	295,888	275,636	323,240	1,495,813
Prize Goods	1,167,024	735,938	837,852	1,774,752	1,024,516	948,369	5,321,427
Total	30,344,628	28,835,907	28,854,658	29,629,353	33,772,409	41,136,135	162,228,462

Official Value of Exports.

	1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.	1809.	1810.	Total of five years, from 1806.
Continent of Europe	15,465,430	13,216,386	12,689,590	11,280,490	23,720,540	19,605,964	80,512,970
Ireland and Isles of Guernsey, Jersey and Man	4,019,481	3,847,124	4,307,415	4,932,184	4,920,224	3,644,609	21,651,556
Asia	1,669,214	1,936,955	1,884,438	1,933,224	1,647,628	1,717,119	9,119,364
Africa	990,575	1,433,152	797,740	532,841	705,979	484,082	3,953,794
America	8,037,335	10,725,341	9,411,808	8,289,956	10,516,125	13,060,688	52,003,918
West Indies	4,126,510	5,368,226	5,475,581	7,585,572	8,776,404	7,357,398	34,563,181
Total	34,308,545	36,527,184	34,566,572	34,554,267	50,286,900	45,869,860	201,804,783

Custom House. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[TABLE (C.)

ACCOUNT of the Value of all Imports into, and all Exports from, Great Britain, in the Years 1805, 1806, 1807, 1808, 1809, and 1810; distinguishing each Year; the real from the official Value; and also, the Imports from and the Exports to the Continent of Europe, the West Indies, America, Africa, Asia, and Ireland, respectively.

Real Value of Imports.

	1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.	1809.	1810.	Total of five years, from 1806.
Continent of Europe	21,744,762	17,855,524	17,442,755	8,905,099	19,821,601	28,120,148	92,145,127
Ireland and Isles of Guernsey, Jersey and Man - - -	6,278,857	6,645,337	6,990,907	8,342,453	7,471,018	7,436,506	36,886,221
Asia - - - - -	9,187,539	7,147,447	8,037,906	7,549,329	7,441,245	9,306,510	39,482,437
Africa - - - - -	193,034	226,396	242,747	374,306	383,926	535,577	1,762,952
America - - - -	4,641,488	5,153,098	7,515,643	4,933,679	9,625,489	12,316,798	39,544,707
The West Indies -	9,505,673	12,126,289	11,715,963	13,007,670	13,392,831	15,158,672	65,401,425
The Whale Fisheries	663,535	608,206	521,240	544,567	500,515	566,967	2,741,495
Prize Goods - - -	1,367,258	859,410	1,033,829	2,061,595	1,214,707	1,096,883	6,266,424
Total	53,582,146	50,621,707	53,500,990	45,718,698	59,851,332	74,538,061	284,230,788

Real Value of Exports.

	1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.	1809.	1810.	Total of five years, from 1806.
Continent of Europe	20,435,940	17,547,243	15,420,514	13,983,123	27,190,337	24,224,567	98,365,784
Ireland and Isles of Guernsey, Jersey and Man - - -	6,400,363	5,813,650	7,032,272	7,971,694	7,565,599	5,675,464	34,148,679
Asia - - - - -	3,111,748	3,259,834	3,555,392	3,718,813	2,990,440	3,117,075	16,641,554
Africa - - - - -	1,156,955	1,655,042	1,022,745	820,194	976,872	693,911	5,168,764
America - - - -	13,073,075	16,358,102	14,679,814	12,172,014	14,932,108	18,521,979	76,664,017
The West Indies -	6,931,050	8,395,010	8,771,924	11,303,908	12,362,356	10,379,413	51,212,611
Total	51,109,131	53,028,881	50,482,661	49,969,746	66,017,712	62,702,409	282,201,409

Custom House. WILLIAM IRVING.]

[CHAP. VII.

Population and African slave trade.—Abolition of the African slave trade; being a succinct account of all the persons, whose writings or labours have conduced to that important event.

Population and African slave trade.—With any inquiry respecting the population of the W. India islands, the extent and nature of the slave trade have been invariably identified; and their joint consideration, in this instance, will, from the nature of the official documents about to be quoted, appear most desirable.

The following account of the white inhabitants, free negroes, and slaves, in the French islands is extracted from the statement of Mons. Neckar; but it is thought that the negro slaves were doubled before the commencement of the French revolution.

	Whites.	Free Blacks.	Slaves.
St. Domingo* in 1779	32,650	7,055	249,098
Martinico in - - - 1776	11,619	2,892	71,268
Guadaloupe in - - 1779	13,261	1,382	85,327
St. Lucia in - - - 1776	2,397	1,050	10,752
Tobago (supposed to be the same as St. Lucia) -	2,397	1,050	10,752
Cayenne (S.A.) in 1786	1,358	- -	10,539
	63,682	13,429	437,736

Reverting to the slave trade, the following series of tables will give a full and clear understanding of its progress, actual extent, and probable decline. A succint account of the persons whose writings and labours have led to the important event of its abolition, as far as it has been effected, will close this chapter.

Population of the British West Indies.

	1787. Report Privy Council, 1788.			1805 †. Edwards's Hist. and Ret. H. C. &c.			1813. Estimate by Colquhoun.		
	European White People.	Free People of Colour.	Slaves.	White People.	People of Colour.	Slaves.	White People.	People of Colour.	Slaves.
Jamaica - - -	23,000	4,093	256,000	28,000	9,000	280,000	30,000	10,000	350,000
Barbadoes - -	16,127	2,229	64,405	15,000	2,130	60,000	15,000	3,000	59,506
Antigua - - -	2,590	1,230	37,808	3,000	1,300	36,000	3,200	1,400	36,000
St. Kitt's - -	1,912	1,908	20,435	1,800	198	26,000	1,200	500	30,000
Nevis - - -	1,514	140	8,420	1,300	150	8,000	500	250	15,000
Montserrat - -	1,300	260	10,000	1,000	250	9,500	444	200	10,000
Tortola, &c. &c.	1,200	180	9,000	1,300	220	9,000	300	400	10,000
Grenada - -	996	1,125	23,926	1,100	800	20,000	800	1,600	32,603
Dominica - - -	1,236	445	14,967	1,594	2,822	22,083	800	1,500	24,000
St. Vincent's -	1,450	300	11,853	1,600	450	16,500	1,280	1,172	27,156
Trinidad - - -	- -	- -	- -	2,261	3,275	19,709	2,700	8,559	21,831
Bahamas - - -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	3,600	3,300	10,000
Bermudas - -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	5,000	200	5,000
Honduras - -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	170	1,000	3,000
Total	49,762	10,569	465,276	58,955	21,967	524,205	64,994	33,081	634,096

* The population of the Spanish division of Hispaniola at present amounts to about 104,000 persons of all ages, of whom about 30,000 are slaves.

† The table for 1787 is official; that for 1805 is founded on actual returns from Dominica, St. Vincent's, and Tobago, on Colonel Draper's Report for Trinidad, &c. and for the rest on estimates by Mr. Edwards, Mr. M'Kinnen, &c. and from general information compiled by Sir Wm. Young. For Jamaica, the refugees fom St. Domingo, white and mulatto, account severally for the increase in each class.]

[Population of the Conquered Colonies, including those lately ceded by Great Britain.

1813.
Estimate by Colquhoun.

	White People.	People of Colour.	Slaves.
Tobago	470	250	17,000
St. Lucia	500	350	24,000
St. Martin's	350	250	3,500
Martinique	10,000	6,000	54,000
Guadaloupe	12,500	7,500	67,500
Mariegalante	400	800	8,000
Surinam	3,186	2,889	60,000
Berbice	1,000	600	25,000
Demerara & Essequibo	4,000	2,500	70,000
Curaçoa	400	2,000	5,000
St. Eustatia	100	250	1,800
St. Croix	2,223	1,164	28,000
St. Thomas	550	1,500	3,000
St. John's	150	200	6,000
Totals	35,829	26,253	372,800

Aggregate Population.

	White People.	People of Colour.	Slaves.	Total.
British W. Indies	64,994	33,081	634,096	
Conquered Colonies, including those ceded	35,829	26,253	372,800	
Total	100,823	59,334	1,006,896	1,167,053

N. B. The negro population, or number of slaves on each island, is no criterion of its produce and value; inferior lands and soil will require more labour, and give less returns.

Estimate.—In Jamaica, &c. one-half hogshead sugar per acre; two-thirds per negro.
Dominica, the same.
Grenada, three-fourths hogsh. per negro and acre.
Antigua, one third hogsh. per acre, and one half per negro.
St. Kitt's, one hogsh. per acre; one half per negro.
St. Vincent's, one hogsh. and one-fourth per acre and per negro.
Tobago, one hogsh. per acre and per negro, &c. &c.

Slave Trade, Coast of Africa.

Report Privy Council, 1788.

From what parts of Africa, by all Nations.

1788.	Slaves.	Price of each on Coast of Africa.
The Gambia	700	£.
Isles Delos, and vicinities	1,500	16
Sierra Leone to Cape Mount	2,000	
Cape Mount to Cape Palmas	3,000	15
Cape Palmas to Apollonia	1,000	
Gold Coast	10,000	18
Quita and Papoe	1,000	
Whydah	4,500	15
Porto Novo, Epea, and Bedagrie	3,500	
Lagos and Benin	3,500	14
New and Old Calabar, and Camerons	21,500	13
Gaben, Loango, Melimba, and Cape Benda	14,000	10
Majumba, Amboin, and Mitsoules	1,000	
Loango, St. Paul's, and Benguela	7,000	
	74,200	

Of the above 74,200 slaves, it was estimated, in 1788, that

British traders took from Africa	36,000
French	18,000
Dutch	4,000
Danes	2,000
Portuguese	12,000
American	2,200
	74,200

The number of negroes really exported from their native country, subsequently to the year 1788, was estimated by the best authorities, at the time of the more serious agitation of the abolition, namely, about 1792, at 80,000 annually.]

[Imports of Slaves to British West Indies, comparative in the Years 1787 and 1803.

	1787. Medium of four years, from Report of Privy Council.			1803. Medium of two years, from Return to the House of Commons, April 5, 1805.		
	Imports.	Re-exports.	Retained.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained.
Jamaica	10,451	3,619	6,832	7,662	2,402	5,260
Barbadoes	367	5	362	1,050	28	1,022
Antigua	768	100	668	434	100	334
St. Kitt's	658	102	556	971	124	847
Nevis, &c.	544	- -	544	228	- -	228
Tortola	120	- -	120	438	259	179
Dominica	6,203	4,960	1,243	550	34	516
Grenada	2,583	170	2,413	1,097	2	1,095
St. Vincent's	1,825	300	1,525	1,540	- -	1,540
Tobago	1,400	- -	1,400	172	- -	172
	24,919	9,256	15,663	14,142	2,949	11,193
Bahamas	- -	- -	- -	2,523	2,230	293
Trinidad	- -	- -	- -	4,516	33	4,483
To conquered colonies	- -	- -	- -	7,164	- -	7,164
Total slave trade	24,919	9,256	15,663	28,345	5,212	23,133

From the above returns it appears, that the slave trade by British traders had, in 15 years, from 1787 to 1803, increased in Africans imported, to the number of 3,436 slaves; and, deducting the supply to the conquered colonies, Demerara, Surinam, &c. had decreased in the number of slaves to British islands, 3,738.

It further appears, that "subtracting Bahama, made in 1791 a free port, and becoming a mere depôt of trade to foreign settlements; and further subtracting Trinidad, ceded to the British crown by the treaty of peace, 1802," the ancient British sugar colonies, in the latter period, 1802-3,

	Slaves.
Imported less slaves from Africa	10,777
Re-exported fewer slaves to foreign settlements	6,307
Retained fewer slaves for cultivation, &c.	4,470
Total supply of slaves, 1787, retained for cultivation	15,663
Total supply of slaves, 1802, retained for cultivation, including for Trinidada 4,483 slaves	15,676

A comparison of the returns made by the privy council, on an average of four years, to 1787, has been exhibited with the returns, 1802-3; because to the period of 1787, the abolition of the slave trade had not been so far agitated, as to have had any influence on the trade. With other views of the subject, and especially as to the re-export of slaves in foreign or British ships, we have next to insert the returns made to the House of Commons by the inspector-general, Mr. Irving, for the years 1787 and 1788: when first, after the peace of 1783, Grenada, Dominica, and St. Vincent's, had recovered a full credit to re-people their plantations, ravaged by the hurricane of 1780; and when Grenada had commenced its valuable export trade to Caracas and the Spanish Main. Dominica was the slave-factor for Guadaloupe.]

[An ACCOUNT of the Number of Ships, with their Tonnage, which have entered, in the Years 1787 and 1788, in the several British West India Islands from Africa, with the number of Negroes which were imported on board the same in each Year; together with the number of Negroes which were exported, distinguishing each Island, and whether exported in Foreign or British Ships.

1787.

Countries.	Arrivals from Africa.			Negroes exported.				
	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Total number of Negroes imported.	To Foreign West Indies in Foreign Bottoms.	To Foreign West Indies in British Bottoms.	To the States of America.	Total Number exported.	Negroes retained for cultivation.
Jamaica - - -	16	2,696	5,682	16,59	92	29	1,780	3,902
Barbadoes - -	7	831	713	- -	85	- -	85	628
Antigua - - -	5	388	562	- -	77	25	102	460
St. Kitt's - - -	5	645	1,095	- -	185	- -	185	910
Nevis - - - -								
Montserrat - -								
Tortola - - -	2	273	143	- -				
Dominica - - -	25	3,640	5,709	1,655	233	130	2,018	3,691
St. Vincent's -	12	1,767	3,361	- -	660	- -	660	2,701
Grenada - - -	13	1,943	3,713	257	279	- -	536	3,320
Bahamas - - -								
Total	85	12,183	20,978	3,571	1,611	184	5,366	15,612

1788.

Countries.	Arrivals from Africa.			Negroes exported.				
	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Total number of Negroes imported.	To Foreign West Indies in Foreign Bottoms.	To Foreign West Indies in British Bottoms.	To the States of America.	Total Number exported.	Negroes retained for cultivation.
Jamaica - - -	20	3,862	6,131	2,391	66	10	2,467	3,664
Barbadoes - -	8	801	1,099	- -	356	6	362	737
Antigua - - -	3	311	570	- -	63	- -	63	507
St. Kitt's - - -	- -	- -	- -	- -	300	- -	300	
Nevis - - - -								
Montserrat - -								
Tortola - - -	2	83	143					
Dominica - - -	24	4,275	6,383	3,404	1,249	- -	4,653	1,730
St. Vincent's -	10	1,975	2,522	- -	670	- -	670	1,852
Grenada - - -	30	4,484	7,436	945	1,598	- -	2,543	4,893
Bahamas - - -	1	130	211					
Total, 1788	98	15,921	24,495	6,740	4,302	16	11,058	13,383]

[SHIPS Cleared Out from Great Britain for the Slave Trade on the Coasts of Africa, under Limitations, by Acts passed 1789-1799, &c.

	London.		Bristol.		Liverpool.		Total.		Each Ship.
	Ships.	Slaves allowed.	Ships.	Slaves allowed.	Ships.	Slaves allowed.	Ships.	Slaves.	Medium Slaves.
1787	26	- -	22	- -	73	- -	121	36,000	494
1795	14	5,149	6	2,402	59	17,647	79	25,198	317
1796	8	2,593	1	393	94	29,425	103	32,411	315
1797	12	4,226	2	801	90	29,958	104	34,984	336
1798	8	2,650	3	1,433	149	53,051	160	57,104	356
1799	17	5,582	5	2,529	134	47,517	156	55,628	356
1800	10	2,231	3	717	120	37,844	133	34,722	261
1801	23	6,347	2	586	122	30,913	147	37,846	259
1802	30	9,011	3	704	122	31,371	155	41,086	266
1803	15	3,616	1	355	83	29,954	99	24,925	253
1804	18	5,001	3	798	126	31,090	147	36,899	244
10 years	- -	46,405	- -	10,718	- -	323,770	- -	380,893	- -

During the above periods, this table shows the greatest possible extent of the slave trade, as allowed by law; and supposing the whole numbers to be procured and taken from Africa, then for the years 1802-3, there will be freighted, average number, on board each ship, 260 slaves; which number will be carried in mind, for reference to the following table of arrivals in the W. Indies, and the mortality in passage thereon to be computed.

From the above table it appears,

That Bristol had of itself nearly abandoned the slave trade:

That London, to the year 1798, was abandoning the trade; but that soon after, the consignees of the conquered colonies of Demerara, &c. began to speculate on extending those great continental settlements, and carried the same into effect, by the annual transport and supply to these foreign provinces, of 5389 African slaves in 1801, and of a much larger number in the preceding years; as we may justly infer from the sudden increase and extraordinary extent of the slave trade, in the years 1798 and 1799.

Lastly, it appears, That Liverpool, from 1787 to 1804, had more than doubled its share of the slave trade, and actually possessed six-sevenths of the whole trade, as carried on by British traders.]

[Arrivals from Africa, and Slaves Imported into the West Indies, 1802 and 1803.

Return House of Commons, April 5, 1805.

	1801-2. War.				1802-3. Peace.			
	Ships.	Slaves imported.	Slaves exported.	Slaves retained.		Slaves imported.	Slaves exported.	Slaves retained.
Jamaica	32	8,933	2,712	6,221		6,391	2,092	4,299
Barbadoes	4	684	- - -	684		1,395	56	1,339
Antigua	3	578	- - -	578		289	200	89
St. Kitt's	5	1,187	158	1,029		755	189	566
Nevis	- -	- - -	- - -	- - -		238	- - -	238
Tortola	1	226	175	51		649	442	207
Dominica	4	603	- - -	603		497	67	430
St. Vincent's	5	981	- - -	981		2,098	- - -	2,098
Grenada	5	1,082	- - -	1,082		1,112	4	1,108
Tobago	1	172	- - -	172		- - -	- - -	- - -
Trinidad	18	4,695	65	4,630		4,336	- - -	4,336
Bahamas	11	2,845	2,279	566		2,200	2,181	19
	90	21,986	5,389	16,597	78	19,960	5,231	14,729
Conquered Colonies. Demarara	13	5,336	- - -	5,336				
Conquered Colonies. Surinam	8	1,549	- - -	1,549				
Conquered Colonies. St. Lucie, &c.	2	279	- - -	279				
	122	29,160	5,389	23,771	78	19,960	5,231	14,729

From the former table, may be computed
in each ship from Africa - - slaves 260
By the above table, on arrivals, each ship 245

Loss on passage, 5 per cent, as less on arrivals - - - - - - - - - - - - - 15

In reference to the former tables, ships in the trade were, 1802 - - - - - - - 155
1802, ships arrived in the British W. Indies - - - - - - - - - - - 122

Remain ships to account for, as in direct trade to foreign settlements - - - - 33

Thirty-three ships, carrying each 245 slaves, will carry direct to foreign colonies - - - - - - - - - - - - 8,085
To British W. Indies - - - - - - - 21,986
To conquered colonies - - - - - - - 7,164
37,235

From the two returns of total slave trade, and of arrivals, it appears that, on the peace in 1802, the trade greatly decreased; and in 1804, in war, again recovered—a matter of curious speculation!

It also appears from the foregoing tables, that during the period between 1798 and 1800, the slave trade had been greatly extended, and which is to be attributed to the then speculations of settling the vast and rich plains of Demerara; which province, on the return to Dutch sovereignty by the treaty of 1802, carried with it a vested British capital of many millions, and the means of increased produce to supply Europe with sugar, portending a serious rivalship in the foreign market, to the ancient British colonies.

British policy was awakened to the mischief, and by an act of the legislature, passed May 18, 1806, limited the supply to conquered colonies, and prohibited the trade in African slaves to foreign settlements. The portion of the foreign slave trade, by this act abolished, was at different periods, on a medium average of years, as follows:]

[1787. The African trade, by the British, was for slaves	36,000
Of this number the British colonies retained	15,862
Supplied to foreign settlements	20,138
1802. The African trade by the British, was for slaves	36,621
Of which the British colonies retained	15,973
Supplied to foreign settlements	20,648

Details of foreign trade abolished, on estimate from 1802.

Per slaves direct to foreign settlements from Africa	8,085
Per slaves re-exported from British islands	5,399
Per slaves to conquered colonies	7,164
	20,648

In conclusion, it is to be remarked that the present negro population in the British W. Indies alone, is still, notwithstanding the abolition of the slave trade, so extensive as to amount to upwards of 650,000, though it has been for years past, from causes independent of the abolition, in a retrogade state. In Trinidad, in the year ending December 31, 1811, out of a black population of 21,143 the deaths amounted to 3½ per cent—742, and the births only to 533. In Grenada, the diminution has been still greater; since by an official return, made in the year ending January 31, 1812, on a black population of 23,602 the deaths were 819, and the births only 339; and in domestic and other labour the deaths were 206 and the births 139, making a decrease upon the whole of 553, after deducting the births. According to this rate of diminution, the slave population would be annihilated in about 40 years.

Abolition of the African Slave Trade; being a succinct account of all the persons whose writings or labours have conduced to that important event.

As slavery has been coeval with the world, and as its influence has been felt and acknowledged in every clime and nation, the slave trade, in the sense in which we here use it, is of very limited or abstract importance. But, considered in itself, even this portion of a barter so uncongenial to the best feelings of human nature, is one calculated to excite the most implicit attention; the causes too that have led to its abolition are well worthy of being recorded as the fairest feature that adorns the annals of christianity.

Reverting to the benign inculcations of this doctrine, we find that even before the seventh century, the Goths, Normans, Franks, Saxons, and Spaniards, had gradually enlarged the liberties of their slaves, and that from that period to the beginning of the thirteenth century, the progress towards general emancipation had become evident, whilst the conversion of all Western Europe from personal servitude and feudal services is known to have been the gradual work of the 13th, 14th, 15th, and part of the 16th centuries.

It were not necessary to assert, that *the slave trade*, the immediate object of our consideration, began in the century last-mentioned, were it not desirable to shew that the system of slavery itself was not, as might otherwise be supposed, of an entirely new origin; or rather that it had a precedent in the established usage of nations long before the organized exportation of negroes from Africa to the W. Indies was adopted.

It is no ungrateful task to retrace the actions of men, whose lives have been devoted to charity and benevolence towards their fellow creatures; there is no heart so hardened, but, in pouring over their virtues in the page of the historian, will involuntarily claim an association with the charitable principles by which they were directed, whilst the man of more kindly feelings, tracing in each line the congenial assimilation of every wish, hope, thought, and expectation, identifies the exertions of his precursors with his own, and dwells upon them with a rapture that gilds the brightest scenes of his existence.

In justice, then, to the early precursors of the slave trade, and to the individuals of the present day who have tended by their private interest or public authority to its abolition, this short memorial* shall be traced.

The first objection publicly announced to the African slave trade was in the year 1516, by a man in an official capacity, Cardinal Ximenes, who was holding the reins of government as an inter-regnum between Ferdinand V. and Charles V. So early as the year 1503, a few slaves had

* The public are already in possession of Mr. Clarkson's elaborate and interesting history on this subject: those who are acquainted with it, will find a great part of the following information to be a digest of that valuable authority.]

[been sent from the Portuguese settlements in Africa to the Spanish colonies in America; Ferdinand, it is believed, was ignorant of the piratical manner in which the Portuguese had procured them; but at his death, Bartholomew de las Casas, the bishop of Chiapa, with a re-acting principle of humanity, intreated Ximenes to establish a regular system of commerce in the persons of the native Africans. In justice to this excellent man, whose humane and charitable spirit was proverbial, (and of which numerous testimonies are recorded in almost every place in this Dictionary, that seemed to have been honoured with his presence), it should be remembered, as his apologists say, that he was most anxious at the same time, "that a code of laws should soon be established in favour both of Africans and of the natives of the Spanish settlements, and that he flattered himself, that being about to return and live in the country of their slavery, *he could look to the execution of it*"—which, had he been enabled to do, the African slave trade, it was thought, might so have altered its features, as to have become rather an honour than a disgrace to mankind, as it might have been the cause of doing that in reality which was first alleged to procure its toleration,—of converting millions to the christian faith, whilst their individual suffering would have been softened down to the mitigated curse to which fallen man is universally indebted.

Ximenes, as we have seen, rejected the bishop's proposal, as "judging it unlawful to consign innocent people to slavery at all."

Through ignorance of its nature, Charles V. on coming to the throne, encouraged the slave trade. In 1517, he granted a patent to one of his Flemish favourites, containing an exclusive right of importing four thousand Africans into America: but he lived long enough to repent of what he had thus inconsiderately done; for in the year 1542 he made a code of laws for the better protection of the unfortunate Indians in his foreign dominions; and he stopped the progress of African slavery, by an order that all slaves in his American islands should be made free. This order was executed by Pedro de la Gasca, and manumission took place as well in Hispañola as on the continent.

About the same time, Pope Leo X. exerted himself, much to his honour, in behalf of the poor sufferers, and declared, "that not only the christian religion, but that nature herself cried out against a state of slavery."

From Spain and Italy we proceed to England. The first importation of slaves from Africa by the British was in the reign of Elizabeth, in the year 1562. Elizabeth expressed herself inimical to this commerce, in the most unqualified terms; she said, as we learn from 'Hill's Naval History,' that "it would be detestable, and call down the vengeance of heaven upon the undertakers;" but, notwithstanding this assertion, the trade continued to be carried on: a circumstance that can only be accounted for by the probable pains taken by those concerned in it, to keep her ignorant of the truth.

Louis XIII. was the next who, at least, professed himself inimical to this trade. Labat, a Roman missionary, in his account of the isles of America, mentions that he (the king) was very uneasy when about to issue the edict, by which all Africans coming into his colonies were to be made slaves, and that this uneasiness continued, till he was assured that the introduction of them in this capacity into his foreign dominions was the readiest way of converting them to the principles of the christian religion.

Thus far, then, we may presume that this traffick would not have been suffered to exist, but for the ignorance of those in authority of its nature; that there was at its commencement a suspicion, a caution, a fear, both as to its unlawfulness and its effects.

The next forerunners of this dignified work were men of a humbler class, and their numbers increased with the goodliness of their undertaking. In the year 1640, and for some years following, the nature of the trade and of the slavery was but little known, except to a few individuals who were concerned in it; but about the year 1670, we find an able treatise published by Morgan Godwyn, a clergyman of the established church, entitled 'The Negroes and Indians Advocate." In this he lays open the situation of the oppressed people, of whose sufferings he had been an eye witness, and does not fail to call forth the compassion of the reader. His work is curious, as having been the first undertaking in England expressly in favour of the cause.

Richard Baxter, a celebrated divine amongst the Nonconformists, was the next advocate. In his 'Christian Directory,' published about this time, he gives advice to those masters in foreign plantations, who have negroes and slaves; he sets forth the heinousness of the traffic, and at last proposes several queries, which he answers]

[in a clear and forcible manner, shewing the inconsistency of the custom, with a due regard to spiritual concerns on the part of those engaged in it.

This 'Directory' was followed by Thomas Tryon's 'Friendly Advice to the Planters, in three parts.' The first of these was, 'A brief Treatise of the principal Fruits and Herbs that grow in Barbadoes, Jamaica, and other Plantations in the West Indies.' The second was, 'The Negroes Complaint, or their hard Servitude, and the Cruelties practised upon them by divers of their Masters professing Christianity.' And the third was, 'A Dialogue between an Ethiopian and a Christian, his Master, in America.' In the last of these, the author examines the commerce and slavery of the Africans by the touchstone of reason, humanity, justice and religion.

Some circumstances that had actually occurred in the colonies were brought into public notice by the representation of the Tragedy of Orinco, written by Southern, in the year 1696, and was the means of making many converts to the growing cause of African emancipation.

The next author, Dr. Primatt, in his 'Dissertation on the Duty of Mercy, and on the Sin of Cruelty to Brute Animals,' takes occasion to advert to the subject of the African slave trade, and argues that the difference of the colour of a skin can give no authority for power or dependence, but that "whether a man be white or black, such he is by God's appointment; and, abstractedly considered, is neither a subject for pride, nor an object of contempt."

This writer was followed by the celebrated Montesquieu, who says, "Slavery is not good in itself. It is neither useful to the master, nor to the slave. Not to the slave, because he can do nothing from virtuous motives. Not to the master, because he contracts amongst his slaves all sorts of bad habits, and accustoms himself to the neglect of all the moral virtues. He becomes haughty, passionate, obdurate, vindictive, voluptuous, and cruel:" and he further adds, "it is impossible to allow the negroes are men, because, if we allow them to be men, it will begin to be believed that we ourselves are not christians."

In the same tone of reasoning Hutchinson, in his 'System of Moral Philosophy,' wonders how men, professing the christian religion, "can hear such computations made about the value of their fellow men and their liberty, without abhorrence and indignation!"

Foster, in his 'Discourses on Natural Religion and Social Virtue,' calls this slavery, "a criminal and outrageous violation of the natural rights of mankind."

But no efforts were heretofore marked with greater success, in stamping a strong feeling of abhorrence at this traffic, than those of Sir Richard Steele, in his affecting story of 'Inkle and Yarico.'

In 1735, the cruelties practised on the slaves by the white people, and the iniquitous dealings of the latter, were strongly depicted by Atkins, a surgeon in the navy, in the publication of his 'Voyage to Guinea, Brazil, and the W. Indies.'

The poetic effusions of Pope, Thomson, and Savage, in the cause of the Africans are well known; they were, probably, not without their due effect.

Amongst the other authors, up to the year 1766, we have to mention Wallis, in his 'System of the Laws of Scotland;' the Rev. Griffith Hughes, in his 'Natural History of Barbadoes;' Edmund Burke, in the pamphlet usually ascribed to him, 'The Account of the European Settlements;' the poet Shenstone; Dr. Hayter, Bishop of Norwich, in a 'Sermon preached before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel;' Dyer, in his poem, called 'The Fleece;' Malachi Postlethwaite, in his 'Universal Dictionary of Trade and Commerce;' Thomas Jeffry, in his 'Account of N. America;' Sterne, in his account of the negro girl, in his 'Life of Tristram Shandy;' Rousseau; and, lastly, Bishop Warburton, who, in his sermon preached in the above-mentioned year, before the society for the propagation of the gospel, made this the principal subject of his discourse.

Having thus far proceeded in exhibiting the literary exertions of such as have advocated the Negroes cause, it will be necessary to revert to some circumstances that led others to *act* in their defence.

Before the year 1700, it was customary for planters, merchants, and others resident in the W. Indies, on coming to England, to bring with them their slaves. Now it was thrown out, that according to the English law, a slave, on being baptized, becomes free; in consequence of which most of those that came over, prevailed upon some pious clergyman to baptize them. The owners, thus circumstanced, knew not what to do. They were afraid of taking away their slaves by force, and they were equally afraid of bringing any of the cases before a public court. In this]

[dilemma, in 1729, they applied to York and Talbot, the attorney and solicitor-general for the time being, and obtained the following opinion from them.—"We are of opinion that a slave by coming from the W. Indies into Great Britain or Ireland, either with or without his master, does not become free; and that his master's right and property in him is not thereby determined or varied, and that baptism doth not bestow freedom on him, nor make any alteration in his temporal condition in these kingdoms. We are also of opinion, that the master may legally compel him to return again to the plantations." This legal opinion, delivered in 1729, was made as public as possible by the interested parties: runaway slaves were now advertised in the same manner as in the land of slavery; and they were put up to auction, some by themselves, and others with horses, chaises, and harness. These and other circumstances which it would be tedious to mention, first produced that able and indefatigable advocate, Mr. Granville Sharp, who is to be distinguished from all those who preceded him, as being not only a *writer*, but an *actor* in the cause.

The first instance in which this philanthropist had an opportunity of exerting his benignity, was in the year 1765, in the case of Jonathan Strong, a slave, who had been brought over from Barbadoes, by his master, Mr. David Lisle. The unfortunate negro having, by severities experienced at the hand of his merciless possessor, become useless, was left by him to go whither he pleased. He applied accordingly to Mr. William Sharp, the surgeon, for his advice, as to one who gave up a portion of his time to the healing of the diseases of the poor. It was here that Mr. Granville Sharp, the brother of the former, saw him. In process of time he was cured, and Mr. Granville Sharp, pitying his hard case, supplied him with money, and afterwards got him a situation in the family of Mr. Brown, an apothecary, to carry out medicines.

In this new situation his old master recognized Jonathan looking robust and healthy, and immediately formed the design of possessing him again. Accordingly, having found out his residence, he had him seized, and conveyed, without any warrant, to the Poultry-compter, where he was sold by his master to John Kerr, for £.30. Strong, in this situation, sent, as was usual, to his godfathers, John London and Stephen Nail, for their protection. They went, but were refused admittance to him. At length he sent for Mr. Granville Sharp, who was also refused access. The latter, however, obtained a hearing before the Lord Mayor, when he answered with great spirit and firmness the opinions of York and Talbot, and maintained it to be an axiom of the British constitution—"That every man in England was free to sue for and defend his rights, and that force could not be used without a legal process," leaving it to the judges to determine, whether an African was a man. This, though several other instances might be quoted, must suffice to shew the ability and exertions of Mr. Granville Sharp. Emboldened by his example, others enlisted themselves in the cause of humanity; and Lord Mansfield, who had been biassed by the opinion of York and Talbot, began to waver, in consequence of the different pleadings he had heard upon the subject. Happily, in November 1769, a case occurred, which was made use of for the determination of this important question; namely, "Whether a slave, by coming into England, became free?"

In order that time might be given for ascertaining the law fully on this head, the case was argued at three different sittings. First, in January, 1772; secondly, in February, 1772; and thirdly, in May, 1772. And that no decision otherwise than what the law warranted might be given, the opinion of the judges was taken upon the pleadings. The great and glorious result of the trial was, "that as soon as ever any slave set his foot upon English territory, he became free." Thus ended the great case of Somerset, which, having been determined after so deliberate an investigation of the law, can never be reversed whilst the British constitution remains.

Of Mr. Sharpe, we shall say no more at present, than that he felt it his duty, immediately after the trial, to write to Lord North, then principal minister of state, warning him, in the most earnest manner, to abolish immediately both the trade and the slavery of the human species in all the British dominions, as utterly irreconcileable with the principles of the British Constitution, and the established religion of the land.

Another literary coadjutor, to whom the above enormities had given birth, was Thomas Day, the celebrated author of 'Sandford and Merton.' In the year 1773, he published a poem, which he wrote expressly in behalf of the oppressed Africans, and to which he gave the name of the 'Dying Negro.'

About this time, also, the first edition of the 'Essay on Truth' made its appearance, in which]

[Dr. Beattie took an opportunity of vindicating the intellectual powers of the Africans from the aspersions of Hume.

In the year 1774, John Wesley gave to the world his work entitled 'Thoughts on Slavery.' In 1776, the Abbé Froyart brought out, at Paris, his 'History of Loango and other Kingdoms of Africa,' in which he did ample justice to the moral and intellectual character of the natives of those regions.

The first motion for the abolition of slavery was made by Mr. David Hartley, then member for Hull, and the son of Dr. Hartley, who wrote the 'Essay on Man.' His motion was, "That the slave trade was contrary to the laws of God and the rights of man." It was seconded by Sir George Saville, and, although it failed, it had the advantage of having been brought forward by men of irreproachable characters, and to whom no motive of party or faction could be imputed.

Thus, including Dr. Adam Smith, who had written as early as the year 1759, his 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' and who, in 1776, in his 'Wealth of Nations,' had shewed in a forcible manner (for he appealed to the interest of those concerned) the dearness of African labour, or the impolicy of employing slaves; with the 'Origin of Ranks,' by Professor Millar, we have a fair compendium of the efforts, literary or personal, that had been employed in this cause up to the year 1766.

From this time to the year 1782, three other coadjutors are to be recorded, viz. Dr. Robertson, in his 'History of America,' and in his 'History of Charles the Fifth;"—the Abbé Raynel, in his 'Account of the Laws, Government, and Religion of Africa,' giving a detail of the produce of it, of the manners of its inhabitants, of the trade in slaves, and of the manner of procuring them, with several other particulars relating to the subject.

In the year 1783, we find Mr. Sharp coming again into notice, and exerting himself in an affair, the knowledge of which, in proportion as it disseminated, produced many most zealous advocates amongst all disinterested persons in its favour. The affair alluded to was that of the ship Zong, wherein Gregson and others of Liverpool tried to recover the loss of property in certain negroes that were thrown over board by the captain (Collingwood), who, upon the plea, that 60 of them had already died, and that several were ill and were likely to die, proposed to James Kelsall, the mate, and others, to throw many of them overboard; stating, "that if they died a natural death, the loss would fall upon the owners of the ship, but that if they were thrown into the sea it would fall upon the underwriters. He selected, accordingly, 132 of the most sickly of the slaves. Fifty-four of these were immediatly thrown overboard, and 42 were made to be partakers of their fate on the succeeding day. In the course of three days afterwards the remaining 26 were brought upon deck to complete the number of victims. The first 16 submitted to be thrown into the sea; but the rest, with a resolution that might have done honour to a better cause, would not suffer the officers to touch them, but leaped after their companions, and shared their fate. These facts, which came out at the trial, were taken down in short-hand through a writer procured by Mr. Sharp, and a wide circulation of them in print was the consequence.

In the year 1784, Dr. Gregory produced his 'Essays Historical and Moral,' in which he took an opportunity of disseminating a circumstantial knowledge of the slave trade, and an equal abhorrence of it at the same time. The Rev. Gilbert Wakefield, and the Rev. James Ramsay, in the above year, published, the former a Sermon, and the latter an Essay, in which every advantage was taken of the enormities that had come to light. The other works of Mr. Ramsay were, 'An Enquiry into the Effects of the Abolition of the Slave Trade in 1784;' 'A Reply to Personal Invectives and Objections in 1785;' 'A Letter to James Tobin, Esq. in 1787;' 'Objections to the Abolition of the Slave Trade, with Answers;' 'An Examination of Harris's Scriptural Researches on the Illicitness of the Slave Trade,' in 1788; and 'An Address on the proposed Bill for the Abolition of the Slave Trade,' in 1789.—In short, this amiable man, from the time when he first took up the cause, was engaged in it till his death, which was not a little accelerated by his exertions.

In the year 1785, Monsieur Necker, in his celebrated work on the French Finances, was the first to throw out the idea of a general compact, by which all the European nations should agree to abolish this trade, and he then indulges in the hope that it might even take place in his generation.

In the same year, other coadjutors came forward, but in a manner distinct from any that had hitherto been pursued. These were George White, a clergyman of the established church, and Messrs. Chubb, who, suggested to the mayor]

of Bridgewater the propriety of petitioning parliament for the abolition of the slave trade. A petition was accordingly presented by the Hon. Ann Poulet, and Alexander Hood, Esq. who were the members for the town of Bridgewater. It was ordered to lie on the table.

In the year 1786, Captain J. Smith defended the calumnies against the assertions of Ramsay, and he stated, that he had seen those things, whilst in the W. Indies, that that author had asserted to have existed. Captain Smith, with the much-admired poet (Cowper), were the two last of those forerunners who exerted themselves in this cause up to the end of the year 1786.

The next year, 1787, was principally remarkable for the zeal and exertions of the Quakers, particularly of their leader George Fox. Through his influence, and with the assistance of others of the same sect, a public reprobation of the trade had been made in their regular yearly meetings so early as the year 1696, and had continued to be reiterated at subsequent periods. These meetings were composed of persons in whom, to judge of the sentiments they expressed, the principles of humanity seemed to have been fostered into the most luxuriant growth, but of whom, from their numbers, it would be impossible in this short treatise personally to speak. The encomiums due to their individual efforts must be paid to their society at large: for it is but justice to say, that what with their petitions to parliament, their circulation of books, the numbers of persons that became labourers and connected themselves in behalf of the Negroes, and their having formed the first association ever established in England for the purpose of its abolition,—the Quakers have invariably proved themselves the steadiest enemies to this trade, and the firmest friends to the suffering Africans.

The first meeting of the special association just alluded to, was held on July 7, 1783: it consisted of the following persons, in alphabetical order—

William Dillwyn,	Thomas Knowles, M.D.
George Harrison,	John Lloyd,
Samuel Hoare,	Joseph Woods.

In referring back to the efforts of the Quakers, and of others united with them in the same object, we must not, however, omit to state, though briefly, the labours of the ordinary meeting for Pennsylvania and the Jerseys, who took up the subject in 1696, and continued it with unabating ardour till 1787, and that the same were crowned by bringing round to their views five other meetings; namely, those of New England, New York, Maryland, Virginia, and of the Carolinas and Georgia, who, in process of time, followed their example.

The cause of liberty was thus daily increasing, when a work was published in the United States which seemed directly to lead to the end at which so many were aiming. This work, entitled 'A serious Address to the Rulers of America, on the Inconsistency of their Conduct respecting Slavery; forming a Contrast between the Encroachments of England on American Liberty and American Injustice in tolerating Slavery,'—which appeared in 1783, was particularly instrumental to the abolition of this traffic. The legislature began to feel the inconsistency of the practice of the slave trade, and so quickly had the sense of this inconsistency spread, that, when the delegates met from each state to consider of a federal union, there was a desire that the abolition of the slave trade should be one of the articles in it. This, however, was opposed by the delegates from N. and S. Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Georgia, the five states that had the greatest concern in slaves. But even these offered to agree to the article, provided a condition was annexed to it (which was afterwards done), that the power of such abolition should not commence in the legislature till the first of January 1808.

In consequence then of these circumstances, the society of Pennsylvania, the object of which was "For promoting the Abolition of Slavery and the Relief of Free Negroes unlawfully held in Bondage," became so popular, that, in the year 1787, it was thought desirable to enlarge it. Accordingly several new members were admitted into it, and the celebrated Dr. Franklin was appointed president. Nor was this all; the example of the Quakers was no longer confined to persons of their own persuasion: other societies sprang up, consisting of a similar union of persons in New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and other states, for the same object, who mutually corresponded and personally communicated with each other for the promotion of it.

Thus far the abolitionists may be considered in four classes: the first consisting of persons in England, of various descriptions: the second, of the Quakers in England: and the third, of the Quakers in the United States; and, afterwards, of an union with those of others on the same continent.

Of the fourth class, the first was Dr. Peckard,

[vice-chancellor of the university of Cambridge, a man who had distinguished himself in the earlier part of his life by certain publications on the intermediate state of the soul, and by others in favour of civil and religious liberty. He had more than once taken occasion to reprobate the slave trade in his sermons; and in 1785, being by virtue of his office required to give subjects for Latin disputations, he proposed the following '*Anne liceat Invitos in Servitutem dare*,' or, 'Is it right to make slaves of others against their will?' This proposition, which might have had only the effect of producing some ingenious and useful essays, was, however unintentionally, the direct cause of putting into motion one of the strongest and most active springs with which the cause had hitherto been impelled. Mr. Thomas Clarkson was at this time senior bachelor in the university, and consequently qualified to write. The want of materials and information were soon supplied by the most energetic and indefatigable research, and his essay which had been dictated equally by the heart as by the understanding, was honoured with the first prize. The same sentiments of humanity did not cease to actuate his thoughts both night and day. Being accidentally thrown into the way of Mr. James Phillips, bookseller of George-yard, Lombard-street, he was encouraged for the good of the cause to publish his essay, when he gave it the title of 'An Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species, particularly the African,' &c. This was ushered into the world in 1786, that is about a year after it had been read in the Senate-house in its first form.

Mr. Clarkson, shortly after this, succeeded in interesting the feelings of several noblemen and gentlemen, amongst whom were, Mr. Bennet Langton, the friend of Dr. Johnson, Edmund Burke, and Sir Joshua Reynolds, who, upon reading the pamphlet, became a zealous and active coadjutor, and continued so to the end of his life. Such was also precisely the case with the humane Dr. Baker, who at that time did the duty of May Fair Chapel, of which an unusual proportion of the congregation consisted of persons of rank and fortune. Lord and Lady Scarsdale became friendly to the cause: the latter promised to promote it by every means in her power, even at the expense of dissatisfying some relations who had interests in the W. Indies; and the former gave his assurance, that should the subject ever come before the House of Lords, it should have his constant support.

Certain things, it appeared to Mr. Clarkson, were in this state of the business necessary to be done:—1st. To distribute the work as widely as possible amongst members of parliament.—2dly. To wait personally upon many of them,—and, 3dly. To endeavour to increase his own knowledge, so as to be enabled to answer the various objections that might be advanced on the other side of the question. He was accordingly, at the request of Mr. Richard Phillips, introduced by Mr. Sheldon to several members of parliament. This Richard Phillips was the cousin of James Phillips above mentioned. Sir Herbert Mackworth, when spoken to by the former, offered his services. He went about to many of his friends in the House of Commons, and others, from day to day, to procure their favour in the cause. Lord Newhaven was applied to, and distributed some. Lord Balgonie (now Leven) took a similar charge. The late Lord Hawke took his share of the distribution amongst the members of the House of Lords; and Dr. Porteus, Bishop of London, became coadjutor in the same work.

The first of the members personally visited by Mr. Clarkson, was Sir Richard Hill, who espoused the cause. The next was Mr. Powys, who after having his scruples satisfied as to the truth of some of the assertions of the abolitionists, busied himself in distributing their books. It should here be observed, that this distribution had hitherto kept pace with the personal exertions of all those just alluded to. It was begun by Mr. Langton, who either wrote or called upon those to whom he sent them; and was followed up by Dr. Baker, Lord and Lady Scarsdale, and Sir Charles and Lady Middleton. Mr. Wilberforce, on the subject being mentioned to him, frankly stated, that it was one that had often employed his thoughts, and that it was near his heart.—Occasional meetings soon began to be held at his house, consisting of a few friends in parliament, who might converse on the subject. The persons present at the first meeting were, Mr. Wilberforce, the Hon. John Villiers, Mr. Powys, Sir Charles Middleton, Sir Richard Hill, Mr. Granville Sharp, Mr. Ramsay, Dr. Gregory (who had written on the subject, as before mentioned), and Mr. Clarkson. The latter here read a paper giving an account of the light he had collected in the course of his inquiries, which gave rise to many useful observations, and led to the necessary measure of forthwith fixing certain other evenings, as well as mornings, for the purpose of transacting the business in question.

About this time, a dinner was given at Mr. Langton's, at which an object of the first con-]

[sequence was attained: it was no less than a pledge of Mr. Wilberforce "to bring forward the measure in parliament, when he was better prepared for it, and provided no person more proper could be found;" and this was followed by a promise, both from Mr. Hawkins Brown and Mr. Windham, to give it their fullest support.—Mr. Clarkson was now anxious that a general society should be formed for the abolition of this trade; and succeeded in procuring the following persons to be on the committee:

Granville Sharp,

William Dillwyn,
Samuel Hoare,
George Harrison,
John Lloyd,
Joseph Wood,

Thomas Clarkson,
Richard Phillips,

John Barton,
Joseph Hooper,
James Phillips,
Philip Sansom.

All these were present at the first meeting. Granville Sharp, who stands at the head of the list, and who, as the father of the cause in England, was called to the chair, may be considered as representing the first class of forerunners and coadjutors, as it has been before described. The five next, of whom Samuel Hoare was chosen as the treasurer, were they who had been the committee of the second class, or of the Quakers in England, with the exception of Dr. Knowles, who was then dying, but who, having heard of the meeting, sent a message exhorting it to proceed. The third class, or that of the Quakers in America, may be considered as represented by William Dillwyn, by whom they were afterwards joined to the rest in correspondence. The two who stand next, may be considered as representing the fourth, as having been instrumental in raising most of the members of that class. Thus on the 22d of May, 1787, the representatives of all the four classes, of which we have been giving a short history from the year 1516, met together, and were united in this committee; a committee, which, labouring afterwards with Mr. Wilberforce as a parliamentary head, contributed under Providence, in the space of 20 years, to put an end to the great and crying evil of the slave trade.

The committee having been thus constituted, a person of intelligence, activity, and zeal for the cause was still wanting to collect information and witnesses to support the abolition. A more staunch and able friend to the cause could not be found than Mr. Clarkson, who fortunately volunteered his services, and immediately set out upon one of the most difficult commissions with which any one could be entrusted. It would be impossible to do justice to the benevolent intentions of this man, by endeavouring to follow him in his various labours and difficulties at Bristol, Liverpool, and Lancaster, in his discoveries of the scandalous modes of procuring seamen for the slave trade, of defrauding them in their wages; in his search after documents, his admeasurement of ships employed in the service, and in bringing to light, in short, all the secret transactions in which the traffic was involved. He had the address to soon lay the foundation of petitions at Worcester and at Chester: on his arrival at Liverpool he collected specimens of African produce, accounts of imports and exports, muster-rolls, accounts of dock-duties, and iron-instruments used in the trade.

In the mean time the committee had not been remiss in their part at home: they had dispersed a great number of circular letters, giving an account of their institution in London, and its neighbourhood. The Quakers were accordingly the first to notice this institution; and they paid it a great compliment in their yearly epistle: after this it was taken up by the Baptists. In answer to the circulars which were sent both to America and to all parts of England, a generous and decisive correspondence with the wishes of the committee, had been now manifested by persons whose rank and talents were calculated to grace and strengthen their cause. It was in consequence of the increase of business, which occurred through this general correspondence, that Robert Barclay, John Vickris Taylor, and Josiah Wedgwood, Esquires, were added to the committee; and it was then resolved, that any three members might call a meeting when necessary. During sittings, which were held from the middle of December of this year to the 18th January, 1788, the business of the committee had so increased, that a further addition to their number was deemed indispensable, and accordingly James Martin, and William Morton, Esquires, members of parliament, and Robert Hunter, and Joseph]

[Smith, Esquires, were elected members. The press was kept continually at work, and in the course of a few months no less than 30,000 small tracts and pamphlets were published to enlighten the public mind: add to which, the personal interference of the committee in releasing negroes, unjustly detained, gave a more undeniable testimony of their sincerity in the cause they had undertaken.

By the beginning of May in this year, several petitions had been sent into parliament, praying for the abolition of this trade; and, without further delay, the King's Privy Council were directed to make inquiries into its nature and extent. With a view to interest Mr. Pitt, as the premier, in their favour, previously to the meeting of the council, Mr. Clarkson was deputed to wait upon him, and was fortunate enough to procure in him a firm and steady co-operator. Equal success attended him on his introduction to Mr. now Lord Grenville, who expressed himself as having already experienced a warm feeling in behalf of the injured Africans.

Upon the opening of the examinations before the Privy Council, things seemed to go against the abolitionists for a time, owing to the circumstance of the Liverpool delegates having been examined first; but the prejudice that the council entertained was at length counteracted.

Two-thirds of the session had now passed: the eyes of the committee were on Mr. Wilberforce: but he had been for some time much indisposed, and a speedy recovery was not to be calculated on. Thus situated they waited as patiently as they could till the middle of April, when they were relieved from their doubtful situation by an unexpected message from Mr. Pitt, who desired a conference with their chairman. In about a week after this conference, intelligence was received that a motion on the subject would be submitted to the House of Commons in a few days. The day fixed was the 9th May. Mr. Pitt, who opened the debate, spoke decidedly in favour of the abolition; but thought, as the sessions was so far advanced, and as there might be a want of proper materials for the full information of the House, a future discussion would be desirable. Mr. Fox sided with the minister: the propriety of the abolition was so congenial with his feelings that had he not heard that the business was likely to have been brought forward by so able an advocate as Mr. Wilberforce, he had resolved himself to have made it the subject of a motion: he could not, however, see the necessity of delaying the question till the next session. A very long and animated debate ensued, and the question was deferred. Sir William Dolben had, nevertheless, the perseverance and humanity to endeavour to lessen, in the interim, the horrors of the middle passage: he accordingly brought in a bill to that effect; the examination of evidence ensued, which was found to be both inconsistent and false. After a second debate in the Lower House, the bill was taken up to the Lords, where it met with the most vexatious delays and opposition; and after having been carried backwards and forwards to both Houses, it was at length finally passed.

Upon the report of the Privy Council being laid upon the table in the next year, a considerable debate took place; but it was eventually agreed, that 12 propositions should be deduced from the report, and reserved for future discussion. The day having arrived, the opponents refused to argue from the report: they now required more evidence; and, upon this being granted and introduced, such doubts and delays were occasioned as to cause a postponement of the consideration of the subject to the next session, though a renewal of Sir William Dolben's bill was again provided for.

The period between the year from July 1790 to July 1791, was chiefly remarkable for the sensation the proposed abolition had made in France. This was much heightened by the presence of Mr. Clarkson, who had visited that country for the express purpose of feeding the flame that had burst forth. He found, on his arrival, that several committees, friendly to the negroes, had been formed, consisting in part of deputies of colour, and that these had been opposed by counter attempts of the committees of the white colonists. After several interviews with the Duke de la Rochefoucauld, the Marquis de la Fayette, and Mirabeau, who strongly espoused the cause, and went so far as to canvass the National Assembly in its behalf, and just as a meeting of these and other eminent characters had been agreed upon as a preliminary step in the business, circumstances of a more domestic and important nature, connected with the resolution, dispelled the flattering expectations that had been formed, and Mr. Clarkson had the mortification of returning to England without further accomplishment of his favourite object.

In the same year a motion was brought into the House of Commons, to resume the hearing of evidence in favour of the abolition: such per-]

[sons as were inimical and interested put in practice all their machinations, and the cause had to struggle against many cruel circumstances of the times previous to the day of decision. Mr. Wilberforce, whose eloquence had made a strong effect on the House in all the former debates on this interesting question, at length, on the 18th of April, made his celebrated motion for stopping all further importation of slaves from Africa: he argued it as indispensably necessary not only on the score of morality and religion, but of sound policy. The motion was lost by a majority of 163 to 88.

The meeting of the committee for the abolition after this defeat was solemn and impressive: they came to a resolution of giving their thanks to 'the illustrious minority of the House who stood forth the assertors of British justice and humanity,' and particularly to William Wilberforce, Esquire, for his unwearied exertions to remove so great an opprobrium from the national character; and lastly, that they considered the late decision as a delay rather than as a defeat.

With this impression the committee began immediately to strengthen themselves by an accession of power, and they accordingly elected Sir William Dolben, Baronet, Henry Thornton, Lewis Alexander Grant, and Matthew Montague, Esquires, who were members of parliament, and Truman Harford, Josiah Wedgwood, Isaac Esar, and John Clarkson, of the Royal Navy, as members of their own body.

Another attempt of the abolitionists, made in parliament this session, met with a better fate: this was the establishment of the Sierra Leone Company, the object of which was to colonize a small portion of the coast of Africa. They who were to settle there were to have no concern in the slave trade, but to discourage it as much as possible: they were to endeavour to establish and to promote cultivation in its neighbourhood by free labour; and it was expected that the persons who were generally fixed upon for colonists should be such negroes, with their wives and families, as should abandon their habitations in Nova Scotia.

Before the next session, the cause had grown so popular in the country, that many families had voluntarily left off the use of sugar. Accordingly the motion for the abolition, when renewed this year, passed the House of Commons, though the commencement of its influence was postponed till the year 1796. The resolution, upon being carried to the Lords, met with a very great opposition, especially from Lord Thurlow, then Lord Chancellor, and Lord Liverpool and Mr. Dundas, who were also in the Cabinet; and, upon the suggestion of the former, it was agreed, that further evidence should be heard, when the consequence was that the whole question was deferred to the next session.

In the next year (1793), a motion was made in the Commons, to renew the resolution of the preceding year; but this being lost, a new motion was made, having for its object the abolition of the foreign slave trade, which also shared a similar fate.

Whilst the cause seemed thus to be at a stand in parliament, it had to regret a serious loss in one of the committee, who had hitherto been its chief support out of doors. Mr. Clarkson, whose unremitting labours the abolitionists can never justly appreciate, had now, worn out with anxiety and exertion, the mortification to see himself (as he expresses it) 'borne out of the field, where (he) had placed the great honour and glory of (his) life.' For many years he had constantly some book or other to write for the good of the cause, besides a voluminous correspondence to keep up with 400 persons. He had, moreover, travelled more than 35,000 miles in search of evidence, and a great part of these journies in the night.

But to return to our history, Mr. Wilberforce, in the month of February, 1795, again moved for leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave trade. It was opposed, however, by Sir William Young, and lost by a majority of 78 to 57. In the year 1796, Mr. Wilberforce renewed his efforts in the Commons, but asking leave for the abolition in a limited time. This motion was opposed as before; but on a division, there were for it 70, aud against it only 74.

In 1797, a palliative system was proposed by Mr. C. Ellis, which had for its object to recommend it to the colonial assemblies to adopt such measures as might appear to them best calculated to ameliorate the condition of the negroes, and thereby to remove gradually the slave trade. This was opposed, however, by Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Pitt, and others, but was at length carried by a majority of 99 to 63.

In 1798, Mr. Wilberforce's favourite motion was again lost, though by a very small majority, the numbers being 87 to 83. In 1799, being undismayed by his frequent disappointments, he renewed his motion; but which, after a long debate, was lost by a majority of 83 to 74. In the same sessions Mr. Thornton brought in a bill to confine the slave trade within certain]

[limits, alleging that the commercial prospects of the Sierra Leone Company were impeded through want of such regulations. This bill, after having carried two divisions, passed through all its stages; but when it was introduced into the Upper House, petitions were renewed against it; and at length, after considerable delay, it was lost by a majority of 68 to 61, including personal votes and proxies.

Between the years 1799 and 1805, various motions were made; though Mr. Wilberforce, seeing that it would be useless, after these repeated trials, to proceed immediately upon the same grounds, allowed the years 1800, 1801, 1802, and 1803, to pass over without any further parliamentary notice than the moving for certain papers; during which he assured the House, that he had not grown cool in the cause, but that he would agitate it in a future season.

In the year 1804, the period fixed upon for renewed exertion, the committee elected James Stephen, Zachary Macaulay, Henry Brougham, Esquires, and William Phillips, into their own body. Four other members also, Robert Grant and John Thornton, Esquires, and William Manser and William Allen, were afterwards added to the list. On the 30th March, Mr. Wilberforce asked leave to renew his bill for the abolition of the slave trade, which, after some very long debates, was opposed in its last stage by Sir Henry Young, Mr. Dickenson, G. Rose, Addington, and Dent, and supported by Mr. Pitt, Francis, and Barham, and at last carried by a majority of 69 to 36. It was then taken up to the Lords; but on a motion of Lord Hawkesbury, the discussion of it was postponed to the next year.

The session being ended, the committee for the abolition increased its number by the election of the Right Honourable Lord Teignmouth, Dr. Dickson, and Wilson Birkbeck, as members.

In the year 1805, Mr. Wilberforce renewed his motion of the former year, but was negatived by an amendment for postponing it till that day six months, by a majority of 77 to 70, but this was owing to the unlucky absence of some of those members who were its firmest supporters.

Previously to the next session it was thought right, by the abolitionists, to arm themselves with fresh witnesses in case the House of Lords might require to hear evidence on the general subject. Mr. Clarkson, who had fortunately recovered from his indisposition, was ready to step forth on this important mission, which he executed with great success.

Lord Grenville and Mr. Fox having been called to the head of the executive government on the death of Mr. Pitt, which took place in January, 1806, the cause was ushered into parliament under new auspices. Sir A. Pigott, the attorney general, brought in a bill on the 31st March, to give effect to a proclamation issued in a former year by his Majesty, by which British merchants were, (with some exceptions) forbidden to import slaves into the colonies, which had been conquered by the British arms in the course of the war. The second object of this bill was to prohibit British subjects from being engaged in importing slaves into the colonies of any foreign power, whether hostile or neutral; and the third was, to prohibit British subjects and British capital from being employed in carrying on a slave trade in foreign ships; and also to prevent the outfit of foreign ships from British ports. This bill passed through both Houses with great majorities: but the last and most decisive measure was that proposed by Mr. Fox on the 10th of June, tending in its consequences to effect the total abolition of the slave trade: his motion was, 'that this House, considering the African slave trade to be contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and policy, will, with all practicable expedition, take effectual measures for the abolition of the said trade, in such a manner, and at such a period, as may be deemed advisable.' The motion having been seconded by Sir Ralph Milbank, was most ably supported by Mr. Wilberforce, Sir Samuel Romily, and Lord Henry Petty. Mr. Windham also stood forward in the cause; and Mr. Fox, having taken a view of all the arguments adduced by the opponents to the cause, and having given an appropriate answer to each, the House divided, when there appeared for the resolution 114, and against it but 15.

Immediately after this division, Mr. Wilberforce moved an address to his Majesty, praying, 'that he would be graciously pleased to direct a negociation to be entered into, by which foreign powers should be invited to co-operate with his Majesty in measures to be adopted for the abolition of the African slave trade.'

This address being carried without a division, the Lords met on the 24th of June, to consider of the resolution and address. The Earl of Westmoreland proposed that both counsel and evidence should be heard against them; but his proposition was over-ruled.

Lord Grenville immediately rose, and made a most brilliant speech, in which he exhibited in their truest colours the inhumanity, injustice, and]

[impolicy of the slave trade: he was followed on the same ground by Mr. Erskine, then Lord Chancellor, Dr. Horsley, Lord Holland, Earl Stanhope, Earl Grosvenor, Lord Ellenborough, and Earl Spencer. The question being put on the resolution, the same was carried by a majority of 41 to 20. The same address also to His Majesty, which had been agreed upon by the Commons, was directly afterwards moved. This also was carried, but without the necessity of a division.

It was now almost universally believed that the slave trade had received its death wound; and it being feared that extraordinary exertions would, in the interim, be made by the slave merchants, the Commons enacted "that from and after August 1, 1806, no vessel should clear out for the slave trade, unless it should have been previously employed by the same owner or owners in the said trade, or should be proved to have been contracted for previously to June 10, for the purpose of being employed in that trade*.

It is in the remembrance of all, that in the month of October of this year, Mr. Fox, one of the oldest and firmest friends of the cause, was numbered with the dead. When he was waited upon by the committee in 1788, his language was, "that he would support their object to its fullest extent, being convinced that there was no remedy for the evil but in the total abolition of the trade," words of which his subsequent conduct evinced the sincerity.

At length the session of 1807 commenced. Lord Grenville, contrary to the practice hitherto adopted, resolved to bring the question first before the Lords. Accordingly, on January 2, he presented a bill, called "an Act for the Abolition of the Slave Trade;" but he then proposed only to print it and to let it lie upon the table. On the 4th, no less than four counsel were heard against the bill. On the 5th the debate commenced.

Lord Grenville opened the debate by a very luminous speech. He was supported by the Duke of Gloucester, the Bishop of Durham, (Dr. Barrington) the Earls Moira, Selkirk, and Rosslyn, and the Lords Holland, King, and Hood. The opponents of the bill were the Duke of Clarence, the Earls Westmoreland and St. Vincent, and the Lords Sidmouth, Eldon, and Hawkesbury.

The question being called for at four o'clock in the morning, it appeared that the personal votes and proxies, in favour of Lord Grenville's motion, amounted to 100, and those against it to 36.

On February 10 the bill was carried to the House of Commons. On the 20th, counsel were heard against it; after which, by agreement, the second reading took place. On the 23d, the question being put for the commitment of it, Lord Viscount Howick (now Earl Grey) spoke forcibly in its favour, and was supported by Mr. Roscoe (member for Liverpool,) Mr. Lushington, Mr. Fawkes, Lord Mahon, Lord Milton, Sir John Doyle, Sir Samuel Romilly, Mr. Wilberforce, and Earl Percy; the latter of whom wished that a clause might be inserted in the bill, by which all negro children, born after January, 1810, should be made free, thus bringing a gradual emancipation in the train of this general abolition.

These having spoken, it appeared, on a division, that there were for the question 283, and against it only 16.

After this it was moved in a committee by Sir C. Pole, that the year 1812 should be substituted for the year 1807, as the time when the trade should be abolished. This amendment produced a long debate, which was carried on by Sir C. Pole, Mr. Fuller, Hiley Addington, Rose, Gascoyne, and Bathurst on one side; and by Mr. Ward, Sir P. Francis, General Vyse, Sir T. Turton, Mr. Whitbread, Lord Henry Petty, Mr. Canning, Stanhope, Perceval, and Wilberforce on the other. At length, on a division, there appeared to be 125 against the amendment, and for it only 17. The bill enacted "that no vessel should clear out for slaves from any port within the British dominions after May 1, 1807, and that no slave should be landed in the colonies after March 1, 1808.

On March 16, after Mr. Hibbert, Captain Hubert, Mr. T. W. Plumer, Mr. Windham, and Lord Castlereagh had spoken against the question that the bill be read a third time, it was passed without a division.

The bill had now to travel back to the Lords, and much anxiety was expressed lest it should not be ultimately passed before the dissolution of the existing ministry, it being rumoured that the new officers were already appointed. The ut-

* Between March 8, 1808 and August 29, 1809, 40 vessels were brought into ports of the British colonies, and condemned therein under the several acts for the abolition of the slave trade. The number of slaves on board were 6,267: average in each vessel, 156. Of these 1,473 were inlisted, 184 entered the navy, 1,603 were apprenticed, and 116 were received by the governor for the civil department of government. (Colonial Department, Downing Street.)

[most dispatch was however used in the printing. An informality in the words "county, territory, or place," which, if not rectified, might defeat the purposes of the bill, was found to exist, and the bill was consequently, on the 24th, again brought before the Commons.

The next day, at half past 11 in the morning, His Majesty's message was delivered to the different members of the ministry, that they were then to wait upon him to deliver up the seals of their office; and, a commission for the royal assent to this bill having been obtained, this administration had the satisfaction to witness its consummation, as they were in the act of resigning their respective functions.

Thus far we have seen what has been effected by the exertions of this country towards the abolition of the slave trade. "It was (said Mr. Pitt, in his speech on the resolutions moved by Mr. Wilberforce in May, 1789, alluding to the expectations from foreign powers), highly becoming Great Britain to take the lead in such a virtuous and magnificent measure; and I cannot but have confidence that they will be inclined to share the honour with us, or be pleased to follow us as their example." It will be interesting for us now to record how far this prophetic surmise was well or ill founded.

It will be remembered that, on the appearance of a party friendly to the cause in France in the year 1791, Mr. Clarkson visited that country in the hopes of embodying the spirit then manifest, and of securing its co-operation in the general cause; but that, upon the bursting forth of the revolution, he found it expedient to hasten home.

At this time the colony of St. Domingo was in a very disturbed and unsettled state, and had sent deputies of colour to vindicate their rights in the National Assembly about to be held in France. These, after remaining three months in that country, were obliged to return without effecting the object of their mission, and the consequence was a civil war between the white inhabitants and the people of colour of that devoted island, which caused as it were, by force, a general emancipation, and led to the decree of the national convention of February 5, 1794, whereby slavery was abolished in this colony. This, then, must be considered as a forced concession, rather than as a gratuitous favour, on the part of the mother country; it was a political magnanimity, which Buonaparte disclaimed and wished to lay aside, in 1802, when he proposed to annul that decree.

Thus far with regard to France the slave trade had received but a temporary and partial abolition: with Spain and Portugal nothing on that score had been even agitated up to the period of its absolute annihilation by the British, as we have just shown, in the year 1807. Indeed, the coast from Sierra Leone to the river Nunez, a part where the slave trade was carried on with great vigour, having for the most part been deprived of this traffic, the small Portuguese settlement of Bissao, lying within the same limits, instead of furnishing a small number of slaves, as it used annually, to Brazil, became the emporium of the slave trade in that part of Africa. The most obvious preventative is to be looked for by the cession of Bissao to the British crown; but (even if the Portuguese were ready to consent) there are some very serious objections, as well on account of the expense as of the loss of men which every establishment in Africa must occasion.

But the principal scene of the slave trade began to show itself on the coast of Whydah, the Bight of Benin, Gaboon, and the Portuguese settlements in Congo and Angola. According to the general opinion of the best informed Spaniards and Portuguese, the annual importation from all these places into Brazil was, in the beginning of 1810, considered at a moderate computation to amount to 40,000, and into Havannah and Cuba to an equal number.

Although the slave trade was ostensibly prohibited by law in the United States, January 1, 1808, yet it is strongly suspected that the mercantile interests of that country has, of late years, succeeded in deriving from it a very lucrative return; not to mention the circumstance of slaves being acknowledged there as such at this day. The wise method adopted by Admiral Cochrane, for emancipating the negroes of that country, has been no less wise than expedient. In the present year (1814) whilst off the Bermuda stations, he offered personal freedom, and a settlement in the British possessions, to all of that unhappy race who were disposed to put themselves under British protection. The effect of this measure was immediately most extensive. Upwards of 700 negroes arrived immediately at Bermuda, and 2 or 3,000 it was said, including women and children, immediately prepared themselves to proceed to Halifax, where encouragement was offered to the men by employment at the wages of a dollar a day.

The Swedish is almost the only government]

[by whom the slave trade has not been encouraged and authorized. It was therefore no difficulty, on the part of that administration, to give to His Britannic Majesty the following answer, in a separate article of their treaty of concert and subsidy, signed at Stockholm, March 3, 1813, namely, "to forbid and prohibit, at the period of the cession, (of Guadaloupe) the introduction of slaves from Africa into the said island, and the other possessions in the W. Indies, and not to permit Swedish subjects to engage in the slave trade."

It is a pleasing anomaly in political economy to see how nations, though at variance with each other in private interests, have sometimes agreed in those in which the benefit of mankind has been the question. A more striking instance cannot be given than in the relations between Denmark and Sweden. Determined as have been the counsels of these two governments, in stipulating for their individual interests, they have mutually conceded the advantages of the traffic in slaves to the warning and supplicating voice of Great Britain. Thus we have already seen the determination of Sweden, and thus we find Denmark avowing as follows, in the eighth article of the treaty of peace, entered into with His Britannic Majesty, January 14, 1814.

"His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the British nation, being extremely desirous of totally abolishing the slave trade, the King of Denmark engages to co-operate with his said Majesty for the completion of so beneficent a work, and to prohibit all his subjects in the most effectual manner, and by the most solemn laws, from taking any share in such trade."

The stipulations on this subject elicited by Great Britain from France are neither of so decisive nor of so pleasing a nature; for, by the first additional article of the definitive treaty of peace and amity between His Britannic Majesty and His most Christian Majesty, signed at Paris, May 30, 1814, we find that

"His Christian Majesty concurring, without reserve, in the sentiments of His Britannic Majesty, with respect to a description of traffic repugnant to the principles of natural justice and of the enlightened age in which we live, engages to unite all His efforts to those of His Britannic Majesty, at the approaching congress, to induce all the powers in Christendom to decree the abolition of the slave trade, so that the said trade shall cease universally, as it shall cease definitively, under any circumstances, on the part of the French government, in the course of five years; and that, during the said period, no slave merchant shall import or sell slaves, except in the colonies of the state of which he is a subject."

This reserve must certainly be considered less creditable to France than to Great Britain, and to those countries whom she has prevailed upon to follow her generous example. By a circular of the royal customs, dated August 29, 1814, France, in pursuance of the above stipulations, established a monopoly of this traffic in her own favour. By that document "French ship owners were informed that the slave trade, to the French colonies in the W. Indies, was restored, and that the transport was restricted to French bottoms."

The decree, issued by the Prince of Orange (also at the instigation of Great Britain) for the abolition of the slave trade, June 15, 1814, will close this memoir.

"We, William, by the Grace of God, Prince of Orange Nassau, Sovereign Prince of the United Netherlands, &c. &c. &c.

"Having heard the report of our secretary of state for foreign affairs, relative to the contents of a note received by him from the ambassador of Great Britain, bearing date the 7th inst. and tending to obtain our prompt and effectual assistance, in the measures which Great Britain has already adopted for herself, and earnestly recommended to other European powers, with regard to the slave trade.

"And as we are desirous to embrace every opportunity to afford His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Great Britain proofs of our amicable sentiments, and of our readiness to contribute, as much as possible, to the attainment of His views:

"Have decreed, and do decree,

"Art. I.—Henceforward no ships or vessels destined to convey Negroes from the coast of Africa, or from any islands belonging to that quarter of the globe, to the continents, or to the islands of America, shall be cleared out or expedited from any of the harbours or roads within the territory of the United Netherlands. The financial department being specially ordered to take such precautions that Our intentions, in this respect, be complied with. And that no ship or vessel be cleared out, which, from its equipment, or from other circumstances, may lead to a supposition of its being destined to the aforesaid]

[purpose, or of being any way connected with the slave trade.

"Art. II.—It shall be signified to the general government of the coast of Guinea, that in none of the forts, offices, or possesions within the limits of that command, any ships or vessels destined or equipped for the slave trade, shall be admitted. And also, that no inhabitants of that country, or any other persons in the vicinity of those ports or offices, shall be sold or exported as slaves; and to such ships or vessels, in case they navigate under foreign colours, notice shall be given of the existing prohibition, and they shall forthwith be ordered to put back to sea; whilst such vessels belonging to the inhabitants of the Netherlands shall be seized, and a report thereof made to the commercial and colonial department."

"Art. III.—Copies of this decree shall be sent to the commercial and to the colonial departments, that they may respectively attend to the execution of the same; and also to our secretary of state for foreign affairs, who is ordered to communicate the contents of these presents;—

"(1.) To the ambassador of Great Britain, in answer to his aforesaid note; adding, that at the eventual negotiations relative to the restitution of the Dutch colonies, we shall not be averse from having inserted in the treaty such an article, as shall continue to bind the government of this state to the perpetual observance of the aforesaid measures, and to the effectual prohibition of the slave trade.

"(2.) To the boards of trade, for the information of the trading part of the inhabitants.

Given at the Hague, June 15, 1814,
And of our Reign the First,
(Signed) WILLIAM.

By order of His Royal Highness,
The Secretary General of State,
(Signed) A. R. FALCK.

CHAP. VIII.

Aggregate Value of the Productions of the W. India Colonies.—General View of the present State of the W. India Colonies.

The important subject of this chapter has undergone the consideration of authors of the first abilities, and has moreover, more than any other, been elucidated by the investigation of persons in official capacities: in the former case we have the works of Mr. Bryan Edwards, Sir William Young, and Mr. Colquhoun; and in the latter, the well-known report of the Privy Council on the slave trade in 1788. It shall be our endeavour from these authorities, to throw together, in as clear and perspicuous a manner as possible, some of the leading documents, whereby to form a just estimate of the value of the W. Indian colonies, the public and private property therein vested, and their general apportionment and distribution amongst the several European powers at the present day.

Aggregate Value of the Productions of each Colony.

(Estimate by Colquhoun.)

	Annual Average of Productions. £.
Jamaica	11,169,661
Barbadoes	1,270,863
Antigua	898,220
St. Christopher's	753,528
Nevis	375,182
Montserrat	211,160
Virgin Isles	201,122
Grenada	935,782
St. Vincent	812,081
Dominica	561,858
Trinidad	735,017
Bahamas	269,806
Bermudas	175,560
Honduras	146,700
	18,516,540

	Annual Average of Productions (including Cattle.) £.
Tobago	516,532
St. Lucia	595,610
St. Martin's	46,615
Martinique	1,785,923
Guadaloupe	1,803,384
Marigalante	113,597
Surinam	1,520,957
Berbice	629,461
Demarara and Essequibo	2,238,529
Curaçoa	19,457
St. Eustatia	26,112
St. Croix	729,473
St. Thomas	21,976
St. John's	148,300
	10,195,926
	18,516,540
Total	28,712,466]

[Whence it appears that the productions of the Old British W. Indies are about double the amount in value of those of the conquered islands and colonies; and it will presently be seen that the value of either differ greatly, as compared to the general estimated value of the respective colonies. Thus, for instance, the total amount in sterling of the estimated value of the old British colonies is taken at £.100,000, and that of the foreign or conquered colonies at £.75,000, whereby the annual average productions of the former may be averaged in round numbers, at about one-fifth, and that of the latter at about one-seventh of the total value of the British and conquered colonies respectively.

Having ascertained the value and proportion of the productions, we proceed to take a

General view of the present state of the W. India colonies.—On this subject it will be necessary, in the first place, to refer to the valuation made, as already observed, in the year 1788, by the committee on the slave trade. That valuation was formed on two principles, and the results of each being nearly similar, it is fair to presume they were not very far from the truth. In the following table the number of Negroes is taken from the latest authority, by way of contrasting it with one of the principles on which that valuation was founded in the Report.

Valuation of British Property vested in the British Sugar Colonies.

	Report Privy Council, 1788.		Estimate, by Colquhoun, 1813.		
			Lands.		
	Patented Estates, as taxed per Acre.	Negroes.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	Negroes.
			Acres.	Acres.	
Jamaica	1,860,000	300,100	809,450	1,914,812	350,000
Barbadoes	106,470	60,000	101,470	5,000	59,506
Antigua	69,277	36,000	44,838	15,000	36,000
St. Kitt's	43,726	26,100	30,126	13,600	30,000
Nevis	30,000	13,000	15,000	6,000	15,000
Montserrat	38,400	9,500	12,000	9,000	10,000
Virgin Isles	25,000	9,000	12,000	9,000	10,000
Dominica	100,000	22,083	86,436	100,000	24,000
St. Vincent's	25,000	25,000	50,000	54,286	27,156
Grenada	89,000	25,000	50,000	30,000	32,603
Trinidad	- -	29,709	27,275	1,500,000	21,831
Tobago	28,000	14,883			
Bahamas	- -	- -	50,000	150,000	10,000
Bermudas	- -	- -	12,500	- -	5,000
Honduras	- -	- -	- -	- -	3,000
	2,414,873	560,375	1,301,095	3,806,698	634,096]

[The above estimate, in the report of the Privy Council, was considered as data for the following valuation:

Value of 560,375 Negroes, at 50*l.* each	£.28,018,750
Value of lands, buildings, and stock, double that of Negroes	56,037,500
Value in towns, stores, and shipping	2,500,000
	£.86,556,250

Mr. Bryan Edwards, in 1792, valued the capital vested in Jamaica alone, at then	£.39,000,000

Income, according to the said report, gave other premises of valuation as follow:

On produce and net income of	£.6,944,142
At 12 years' purchase	12
	£.83,329,704

In the preceding table the value of the Negroes is taken at the lowest rate. The extent of patented land admits not of an accurate computation of medium value per acre, and the averages on which the statement in the report was founded were liable to be erroneous. Much of the land was uncultivated, and much scarcely cultivable: besides which, lands and soils not only vary, as productive of the staple articles in quantity, but likewise in quality, inasmuch as five cwt. of sugar from St. Vincent's is equal in value to six cwt. from Tobago. Upon the whole, however, the valuation of the land has been considered fair and unobjectionable, and has invariably afforded the data on which subsequent estimates of the same nature with regard to those colonies have been founded.

Nevertheless, since the period of the above report having been made, many circumstances have conduced to alter the value of the colonies in the western hemisphere. The works of defence and public buildings, as well as private, in each colony, have of late years experienced a considerable increase; the value of the Negroes has been inhanced by the abolition of the slave trade: more lands have been brought into cultivation, and the worth of every article of consumption and furniture, agricultural or domestic, has been increased. Following, therefore, the principles of valuation laid down by Mr. Colquhoun, we may thus state the

General Value of the British and Foreign (or Conquered) West India Colonies.

(Estimated by Colquhoun, 1812.)

British Colonies.				Foreign (or Conquered) Colonies.		
			£.			£.
Negroes 634,096 at 55*l.* each			34,875,280			20,504,000
		Acres.	£.		£.	
Lands	Cultivated	1,301,095	24,357,520	Cultivated	32,725,000	34,567,000
	Uncultivated	3,806,698	3,644,198	Uncultivated	1,842,000	
			28,001,718			
Buildings.	Public		3,193,000	Public	2,970,000	11,180,000
	Private		18,559,090	Private	8,210,000	
			21,752,090			
Stock			7,630,740			3,253,000
Towns and stores			7,054,500			4,980,000
Shipping			240,036			264,000
Coin			460,500			472,000
			£.100,014,864			£.75,220,000]

[Of the above foreign or conquered colonies Great Britain restored to their former possessors, as follows:

Colonies restored by Great Britain to Foreign Powers, pursuant to Treaty of 30th May, 1814.

	Population.			Lands.		Value of Negroes.	Value of Land.		Estimated aggregate Value of each Colony.
	White Persons.	Free Persons of Colour.	Negro Labourers.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.		Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	
				Acres.	Acres.	£.	Acres.	Acres.	£.
Martinique	10,000	6,000	54,000	216,000	700,000	2,970,000	3,240,000	700,000	11,090,000
Guadaloupe	12,500	7,500	67,500	260,000	900,000	3,712,500	3,900,000	900,000	13,611,000
Mariegalante	400	800	800	12,000	20,000	440.000	180,000	20,000	773,000
St. Martin's	350	250	3,500	12,000	30,000	192,500	60,000	15,000	362,100
Santa Cruz	2,223	1,164	28,000	45,000	40,000	1,540,000	900,000	40,000	3,728,640
St. Thomas	550	1,500	3,000	5,000	7,000	165,000	100,000	7,000	747,800
Curaçoa	400	2,000	5,000	30.000	50,000	275,000	300,000	25,000	1,187,000
Surinam	3,186	2,889	60,000	400,000	Ad infinitum.	3,300,000	6,000,000	Ad infinitum.	11,729,000
St. Eustatia	100	250	1,800	8,000	12,000	99,000	120,000	12,000	415,900
Totals	29,709	22,353	223,600	988,000	1,759,000	12,694,000	14,800,000	1,719,000	43,644,440

The aggregate value of the W. India insular and continental colonies, at present belonging to the British crown, may therefore be thus stated:

Aggregate Value of the British Insular and Contiental Colonnies (1814.)

	£.	£.
Old British W. India colonies		100,014,864
Conquered W. India colonies	75,220,000	
Conquered W. India colonies restored, *viz.*		
French	25,836,100	
Dutch	13,331,900	
Danish	4,476,440	
	43,644,440	
Remains		31,575,560
Aggregate value		£. 131,590,424]

[WEST LAKE lies between Sandy Bay and Little Sandy Bay, on Lake Ontario, Upper Canada, *e.* of the Isle de Quinté, and is in the township of Sophiasburgh.]

[WEST LIBERTY, a post-town of Virginia, and the capital of Ohio County, is situate at the head of Short Creek, six miles from the Ohio. It contained, in 1790, above 120 houses, a Presbyterian church, a court-house, and goal. It lies two miles *w.* of the Pennsylvania line, eight *n.* of Wheeling, and 19 *w.* of Washington in Pennsylvania.]

[WEST MAIN, the *w.* shore of Hudson's Bay, in N. America, is so called, at least that part of it called James' Bay. See EAST MAIN.]

[WESTMINSTER, a township of Massachusetts, situate in Worcester County, was granted to those who did service in the Narraganset war, or their heirs, in 1728, and was then styled Narraganset, No. 2. It was incorporated by its present name in 1759, and contains 20,000 acres of land, well watered. It is situate on the height of land between the rivers Merrimack and Connecticut, having streams arising in the town, and running into both. It is about 55 miles from Boston to the *n.* of *w.*, and about 22 miles *n.* from Worcester, and contained, in 1790, 177 dwelling-houses, and 1,176 inhabitants.]

[WESTMINSTER, a township of Upper Canada, is situate upon the river Thames, adjoining to London.]

[WESTMINSTER, a considerable township of Vermont, in Windham County, on Connecticut River, opposite Walpole in New Hampshire. It contained, in 1790, 1,601 inhabitants. Sexton's River enters the Connecticut in the *s. e.* corner of the township. Here is a post-office 15 miles *n.* of Brattleborough, 14 *n. w.* of Keen, in New Hampshire, and 44 *n.* of Northampton in Massachusetts.]

[WESTMINSTER, the easternmost town of Frederick County, Maryland, about 18 miles *e. n. e.* of Woodsborough, 23 *n. w.* of Baltimore, and 40 *n.* by *e.* of the city of Washington.]

[WESTMORE, the westernmost township of Essex County, Vermont. Willoughby Lake lies in this township.]

[WESTMORELAND, a county of Virginia, bounded *n.* and *e.* by Patowmack River, which divides it from Maryland, *s. e.* by Northumberland, *s. w.* by Richmond, and *w.* by King George. It contained, in 1790, 7,720 inhabitants, of whom 4,425 were slaves. This county has the honour of having given birth to George Washington, first President of the United States. The court-house in this county is on the *s.* bank of Patowmack River, 10 miles *n.* by *e.* of Richmond, 11 *n. w.* of Kinsale. Here is a post-office.]

[WESTMORELAND, a county of Pennsylvania, bounded *n.* by Lycoming, and *s.* by Fayette County, and abounds with iron ore and coal. It contained, in 1790, 12 townships and 16,018 inhabitants, including 128 slaves. Chief town Greensburgh.]

[WESTMORELAND, a considerable township of New Hampshire, Cheshire County, on the *e.* bank of Connecticut River, between Chesterfield and Walpole. It was incorporated in 1752, and contained, in 1790, 2,018 inhabitants.]

[WESTMORELAND, a township of N. York, in Herkemer County, taken from Whitestown, and incorporated in 1792. In 1790, it contained 840 inhabitants, of whom 137 were electors. The centre of the town is six miles *s.* of Fort Schuyler, and 33 *n. w.* of Cooperstown.]

[WESTMORELAND, a tract of land in Pennsylvania, bounded *e.* by Delaware River, *w.* by a line drawn due *n.* and *s.* 15 miles *w.* of Wyoming on Susquehannah River, and between the parallels of lat. 41° 40′ *n.* was claimed by the State of Connecticut, as within the limits of their original charter, and in 1754 was purchased of the Six Nations of Indians by the Susquehannah and Delaware companies, and afterwards settled by a considerable colony, under the jurisdiction of Connecticut. This tract was called Westmoreland, and annexed to the county of Litchfield in Connecticut. The Pennsylvanians disputed the claim of Connecticut to these lands, and in the progress of this business there was much warm contention, and some bloodshed. This unhappy dispute has since been adjusted. See WYOMING.]

[WESTON, a township of Massachusetts, in Middlesex County, 15 miles *w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1712, and contained, in 1790, 1,010 inhabitants.]

[WESTON, a township of Connecticut, Fairfield County, *n.* of Fairfield, adjoining.]

[WESTON'S ISLANDS, groups of Islands in James's Bay; discovered by Captain Thomas James, in his voyage to find out a *n. w.* passage.]

[WEST POINT, a strong fortress erected during the revolution, on the *w.* bank of Hudson's River, in the State of New York, six miles above Anthony's Nose, seven below Fish Kill, 22 *s.* of Ploughkeepsie, and about 47 *n.* of New York city. It is situate in the midst of the high lands, and is strongly fortified by nature as well as art. The principal fort is situate on a point of land, formed by a sudden bend in the river, and com-

mands it, for a considerable distance, above and below. Fort Putnam is situate a little farther back, on an eminence which overlooks the other fort, and commands a greater extent of the river. There are a number of houses and barracks on the point near the forts. On the opposite side of the river, are the ruins of Old Fort Constitution, with some barracks going to decay. A number of continental troops are stationed here to guard the arsenal and stores of the United States, which are kept at this place. This fortress is called the Gibraltar of America, as by reason of the rocky ridges, rising one behind another, it is incapable of being invested by less than 20,000 men. The fate of America seemed to hover over this place. It was taken by the British, and afterwards retaken by storm, in a very gallant manner, by General Wayne. Benedict Arnold, to whom the important charge of this fort was committed, designed to have surrendered it up to the British; but the treason was discovered before the plot was brought to bear. About the same time, Major Andrè, a most accomplished and gallant officer, was taken, tried, and executed as a spy, though Arnold found means to make good his escape to the British lines.]

[WESTPORT, a flourishing township of Massachusetts, Bristol County, 70 miles *s.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1787, and contained, in 1790, 2,466 inhabitants.]

[WEST SPRINGFIELD, a township of Massachusetts, Hampshire County, on the *w.* side of Connecticut River, opposite Springfield, about 22 miles *n.* of Hartford, and 76 *w. s. w.* of Boston. In the compact part are about 40 dwelling houses, and a Congregational church. The township contained, in 1790, three parishes, and 2,367 inhabitants.]

[WEST STOCKBRIDGE, a township of Massachusetts, in Berkshire County, adjoining Stockbridge on the *w.* and has the New York line on the *n. w.* Williams's River, and its streams, water the township, and accommodate three iron-works, a fulling-mill, a grist-mill, and two saw-mills.]

[WEST TOWN, a township in Chester County, Pennsylvania.]

[WETEPAHATOES, Indians of N. America, a wandering nation, who inhabit an open country, and raise a great number of horses, which they barter to the Ricaras, Mandans, &c. for articles of European manufacture. They are a well-disposed people, and might be readily induced to visit the trading establishments on the Missouri. From the animals their country produces, their trade would, no doubt, become valuable. These people again barter a considerable proportion of the articles they obtain from the Menetares, Ahwahhaways, Mandans, and Ricaras, to the Dotames and Castapanas.]

WETOCK, a small river of the province and colony of S. Carolina, in the district of Onslow. It runs *s.* and enters the sea.

[WEYBRIDGE, a township of Vermont, in Addison County, separated from New Haven on the *n.* and *e.* by Otter Creek. It contained, in 1790, 175 inhabitants. Snake Mountain lies nearly on the line between this township and that of Addison on the *w.*]

[WEYMOUTH, the Wessaguscus, or Wessagusset, of the Indians, a township of Massachusetts, a capital, Norfolk County, incorporated in 1635. It lies eight miles *s.* of Boston, and employs some small vessels in the mackarel fishery. Fore River on the *n. w.* and Black River on the *s. e.* include near one half of the township. The cheese made here is reckoned among the best brought to Boston market. It is said to be one of the oldest towns in the State: Mr. Weston, an English merchant, having made a temporary settlement here in summer, 1622. It contained, in 1790, 232 houses, and 1469 inhabitants.]

Weymouth, in the Bay of Massachusetts. It is not so considerable as it was. To cross the river here there is a ferry, to which passengers pay two cents in the day and four at night.

WEYPULCO, a settlement of Indians of the province and colony of S. Carolina; situate on the shore of the River Cousa.

WHALE Point, on the *s.* coast of the Strait of Magellan. It is the extremity which looks to the *e.* of the Island of Louis le Grand.

Whale Point, another point of land, on the *e.* coast of Newfoundland, between the Island of Oyes and the Bay of Taureaux.

Whale Point, a large sand-bank on the coasts of the same island of Newfoundland; one of those where the whale-fishery is carried on; and lying between the grand Bank of Newfoundland and that called Green Bank.

WHALECOVE, an island of N. America, to the *n.* of another island, which is near to it, called Lovegrove; also *s.* of Brook-cobham, or Marble Island, in 63° lat. and is supposed, that by it is an easy and convenient pass into the S. Sea.

[WHALE FISH Island, in the River Esse-

quibo, on the coast of S. America, is above the Seven Brothers, or Seven Islands, and below the Three Brothers.]

[WHALE Island, at the mouth of M'Kenzie's river, in the N. Sea or Frozen Ocean, on the *n.* coast of the *n. w.* part of N. America. Lat. 69° 14′ *n.*]

[WHAPPING'S Creek, a small creek which empties through the *e.* bank of Hudson's River, in the township of Fish-Kill, eight miles *s.* of Poughkeepsie, and 57 *n.* of New York city. Here are two mills, at which considerable business is performed.]

[WHARTON, a township of Fayette County of Pennsylvania.]

[WHATELY, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire County, 10 miles *n.* of Northampton. It was incorporated in 1771, and contained in 1790, 736 inhabitants.]

[WHEELING, or Wheelin, a post-town of Virginia, situate at the mouth of a creek on the *e.* bank of Ohio River, 12 miles above Grave Creek, 8 *s. w.* of West Liberty, and 46 *s. w.* of Pittsburg. Not far from this place, a wall has been discovercd some feet under the earth, very regularly built, apparently the work of art. Quarrels are here frequent, and when two persons fight, it is generally (says Mr. Ashe) "according to the rule of *rough and tumble;* a kind of combat in which it is lawful for the combatants to peel the skull, tear out the eyes, or smooth away the nose."]

[WHEELOCK, a township of Vermont, in Caledonia County, about 20 miles *n. w.* of Littleton, and contained, in 1790, 33 inhabitants.]

[WHEELWRIGHT Gut, at the *n. w.* end of the island of St. Christopher's in the W. Indies, has Willett's Bay and Masshouse Bay to the *e.* and Courpon's and Convent Bays to the *s. w.* There is a sand before the entrance, which appears to prevent ships from going in.]

[WHENNUIA, one of two small islands in the S. Pacific Ocean, near the island of Otaha.]

[WHETSTONE Fort, is on the *n.* side of Patapsco River, and *w.* side of the mouth of Baltimore Harbour, in Maryland. It is opposite Gossuch Point, two miles and a half *e.* from the Baltimore company's iron-works, at the mouth of Gwinn's Falls.]

[WHIPPANY, a village of New Jersey, Morris County, on a branch of Passaick River, nearly five miles *n. e.* of Morristown.]

[WHIRL, or Suck, in Tennessee River, lies in about lat. 35° 10′ *n.* and long. 85° 48′ *w.* about 110 miles below Knoxville.]

[WHITBY, a township of Upper Canada, in the *e.* riding of the county of York. It lies *w.* of Darlington, and fronts Lake Ontario.]

[WHITCHURCH, a township of Upper Canada, in the *e.* riding of the county of York, fronts to Yonge-street, and lies to the *n.* of Markham.]

WHITE, a torrent of water of the Island of Guadaloupe, which rises in the mountain of Azufrera, or Sulphur, and takes this name from the white colour which its waters often assume from being impregnated with ashes and sulphur. It enters into the River San Luis.

[White, a river of Louisiana, which joins Arkansas River, a water of the Mississippi, about 10 miles above the fort, which Mr. Hutchins reckons 550 computed miles from New Orleans, and 660 from the sea. It has been navigated above 200 miles in flat-bottomed boats. See Arkansas.]

[White, a small river, of the N. W. Territory, which pursues a *n. w.* and, near its mouth, a *w.* course, and enters Wabash River, 12 miles below the mouth of Chickasaw River.]

[White, a river of Vermont, which falls into Connecticut River about five miles below Dartmouth College, between Norwich and Hartford. It is from 100 to 150 yards wide, some distance from its mouth. Its source is in a spring, which by means of Onion River, communicates with Lake Champlain. It derives its name from the whiteness of its water.]

[White Bay, on the *e.* coast of Newfoundland Island, in the Machigonis River. Its *n.* limit is Cape d'Argent.]

[White Cape, or Blanco, on the *w.* coast of New Mexico, is 20 leagues to the *n. w.* of Herradura. This cape, in lat. 10 *n.* bears with the island Canoe, at *n. w.* by *w.* and *s. e.* by *e.* and with St. Luke's Island at *n. e.* by *n.* and *s. w.* by *s.* being about nine leagues from each.]

[White Deer, a township of Pennsylvania, situate on Susquehannah River.]

[White Ground, a place in the Creek country, 10 miles from Little Talassee.]

[WHITEFIELD, a township of Pennsylvania, in Westmoreland County.]

[WHITEFISH Island, at the *e.* end of Lake Superior, a little *w.* of the Isles aux-Rables, and near to which the lake forces its passage by the falls of St. Mary.]

[WHITEFISH Point, in Upper Canada, at the *e.* end of Lake Superior, on the *s.* shore, near to the River St. Mary.]

[WHITEHALL, a township of Pennsylvania, in Northumberland County.]

[WHITEHALL, a township of New York, Washington County, bounded *s.* by the *s.* bounds of the tract formerly called Skeensborough, and *n.* by the *n.* bounds of the county. In 1790, it contained 805 inhabitants. In 1796, 150 of the inhabitants were electors.]

[WHITE MARSH, a township of Pennsylvania, Montgomery County.]

[WHITE Mountains. See NEW HAMPSHIRE.]

[WHITEPAINE, a township of Pennsylvania, Montgomery County.]

[WHITE Plains, a township of New York, W. Chester County, bounded *e.* by Mamaroneck River, and *w.* by Bronx River. It contained, in 1790, 505 inhabitants, of whom 76 were electors, and 49 slaves. It is remarkable for a battle fought here between the American and British forces, October 28, 1796. It is 15 miles *e.* by *n.* of Kingsbridge, 32 *n. e.* by *n.* of New York, and 105 from Philadelphia.]

[WHITE Point, on the coast of Nova Scotia, is about three leagues to the *s. w.* from Cape Canso, and *n. e.* of Green Point. There is an island off the point that shelters Bar Haven.]

[WHITE Point, on the coast of Cape Breton Island, is about a mile *s. w.* of Black Cape, near the harbour of Louisburg, and the *e.* point of Gabarus Bay.]

[WHITE Point, in the island of Jamaica, lies *e.* of White Horse Cliffs, about seven leagues *e.* of Port Royal.]

[WHITE's Bay, on the coast of Newfoundland. Lat. 50° 17′ *n.* Long. 56° 15′ *w.*]

[WHITE's River, on the *n. e.* coast of Jamaica, is near the *w.* limit of Port Antonio.]

[WHITESTOWN, in Herkemer County, New York, on the *s.* side of Mohawk River, five miles *s. e.* of Old Fort Schuyler, and 76 *w.* of Albany. The compact part of this new and flourishing town lies on one beautiful street about a mile in length, ornamented with trees. The houses are generally furnished with water, conducted by pipes laid under ground, from the neighbouring hills. At present the court-house, meeting-house, and school-house, are combined in one building; but it is contemplated shortly to erect separate and handsome edifices for these several purposes. The soil of this town is remarkably good. Nine acres of wheat in one field, yielded, on an average, 41 bushels of wheat, of 60lb. each, an acre. This is no uncommon crop. This town and its neighbourhood has been settled with remarkable rapidity. All that district comprehended between the Oneida Reservation, and the German Flats, and which is now divided into the townships of Whitestown, Paris, and Westmoreland, was known, a few years since, by the name of Whitestown, and no longer ago than 1785, contained two families only, those of Hugh White, and Moses Foot, esquires. In 1796, there were within the same limits, five parishes, with as many settled ministers, three full regiments of militia, one corps of light-horse, all in uniform. In the whole, 7359 inhabitants, of whom 1190 were qualified electors.]

[WHITE Wood Island, or De Bois Blanc. See MICHILLIMAKKINAK.]

[WHITING, a township of Vermont, in Addison County, separated from Leicester, on the *e.* by Otter Creek, and has part of Orwell on the *w.* It contained, in 1790, 250 inhabitants.]

[WHITTINGHAM, a township of Vermont, in the *s. w.* corner of Windham County, containing, in 1790, 442 inhabitants.]

WHITSON, a large bay on the coast of the province and colony of Virginia, discovered by Walter, who gave it this name in 1603. In lat. 41°.

[WHITSUN Island, in the S. Pacific Ocean, is about four miles long, and three broad; and so surrounded by breakers that a boat cannot land. Lat. 19° 26′ *s.* Long. 137° 56′ *w.* Variation of the needle in 1767, 6° *e.*]

WIAMIA, a river of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia, in the part possessed by the Dutch, or in the colony of Surinam. It rises near the shore of the river Marawini, runs *s. s. e.* and enters the sea between that river and the mouth of the river Surinam.

[WIANDOTS, or WYANDOTS, an Indian tribe inhabiting near Fort St. Joseph and Detroit, in the *n. w.* territory. Warriors, 200.]

[WIAPOCO, or LITTLE WIA, is an outlet or arm of the river Orinoco, on the *w.* side. It has many branches, which are all navigable.]

WIAUT. See OUYATANON.

WIAUT PETIT, to distinguish it from the former, which has the name of Grand, in the province and government of Louisiana. It is situate on the *s.* shore of the river Wabache.

[WICKFORD, a small trading village in the township of N. Kingstown, Rhode Island, and on the *w.* side of Narraganset Bay; 24 miles *s.* of Providence, and 9 or 10 *n. w.* of Newport.]

[WICO, a settlement and establishment of the Swedes, in the province of Pennsylvania and United States. It is half a mile from the city of Philadelphia.

WIE, a river of the province and *captainship* of Seregipe in Brasil. It is small, rises near the coast, turns *e.* and runs into the Liximai near its entrance into the sea.

WIE, a settlement, in the same province as the former river, and situate on its shore.

WIE, another, a small river of the province of Maryland, in the United States, in Queen Anne's County. It runs *w.* and enters the sea in the Bay of Chesapeak.

[WIESPINCAN, a river of Louisina, which empties into the Missisippi, 22 miles above the Soutoux Village.]

[WIGHCOMICO, a short navigable river of Maryland, which is formed by Piles and Allen's Fresh, and, running *s.* empties into the Patowmac, about 35 miles from its mouth. Cob Neck forms the *n.* limits of its mouth.]

WIGHT, ISLE OF, in the province and colony of Virginia, and one of the colonies of the same. It is *n.* of Nausamund, contains 142,726 acres of land, in the two parishes called Warwick Squeek and Newport, and has a most abundant stream of water.

[WIGHT, Isle of, *e.* end of Long Island. See GARDNER'S ISLAND.]

[WILBRAHAM, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire County, 10 miles *e.* of Springfield, 25 *n. e.* of Hartford in Connecticut, and 66 *w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1763; and contained, in 1790, two parishes, and 1555, inhabitatns.]

WILCHASET, a fort of the province of Sagadahoc in the United States, built on the shore of the river Sagadahoc.

WILCOCOMOCO, a city of the province and colony of Virginia in N. America. It is small, but well situate and well defended.

WILCOMOCO, a small river of the province of Maryland in the United States, in Mary County. It runs *s.* and enters the Potowmack.

WILCOMOCO, another river, also small, in this province. It runs *s.* and enters the sea in the Bay of Chesapeak.

[WILKES, a county of the upper district of Georgia, separated from S. Carolina, on the *e.* by Savannah River, and contained, in 1790, 31,500 inhabitants, including 7,268 slaves. Tobacco is the chief produce of this county, of which it exported about 3000 hhds. in 1788. It is well watered, and is famous for a medicinal spring, near its chief town, Washington; which see.]

[WILKES, a county of Morgan district, in the *n. w.* corner of N. Carolina. It contained, in 1790, 8,143 inhabitants, including 549 slaves.]

[WILKES, a post-town, and chief of the above county, 28 miles from Rockford, and 31 from Morgantown.]

[WILKSBARRE, or WILKSBURG, a post-town of Pennsylvania, and chief town of Luzerne County, situated on the *s. e.* side of the *e.* branch of the Susquehannah. It contained, in 1790, a court-house, gaol, and about 45 houses. It is 47 miles *n. e.* of Bethlehem, about the same distance above Sunbury, and 86 *n.* by *n. w.* of Philadelphia.]

[WILLET'S BAY, at the *n. w.* end of the island of St. Christopher's. Willet's Gut is at the *s. w.* coast of the same island.]

WILLIAM-FORT, an island and castle of the principal channel leading to the port of Boston, in the province of New England, of the United States. It is the most regular fortress that has been built by the English in those countries, and is thus called, as having been erected in the time of King William III. by Colonel Roemer, a celebrated engineer. It is a league from the city, and so advantageously situate, that no vessel can approach it without danger of being sent to the bottom. It has 100 cannons (20 of which were given to the province by Queen Anne) arranged on a platform, near the surface of the water at high tide, so as to prevent any vessel from coming round to use her guns against the fortress. This is of a square figure, surrounded by a covered way, and united by a line of communication from the principal gate to a redoubt, and having two other redoubts towards the great battery, which is so near the canal that no vessel can pass without coming within pistol-shot of it. Some of the guns of the fort are 42 pounders. There are in this fort four companies of militia, and, although in time of peace it is occupied merely by 50 or 100 men, it has in time of war a regular garrison of 500 soldiers, exempt from every other service. Besides this force, in 24 hours, they can assemble at Boston 10,000 effective men; and they have, to guard against surprise, a signal house erected on a rock, at about two leagues distance from the city. The signal is made by lowering and hoisting the flag as many times as to correspond with the number of the vessels appearing; and if these exceed any moderate number, three guns are fired to put the town in arms; again, if it be thought necessary to advise the district, the signal house itself is set on fire. Thus, although a vessel, under protection of a fog, should venture to sail up between the island and the rock, Boston has always six hours notice to prepare itself

for its defence; and, although the said vessel may pass the castle, yet it has to encounter two batteries at the two extremities, the *e.* and *n.* of the garrison, which command the whole bay, and render a safe entrance to any large vessel impossible, although merchantmen and smaller craft enter the river Charles out of gun-shot. Besides the above advantages, it also follows that no privateer can take any vessel out of the port, since no one is permitted to pass without the governor's leave, nor can this be obtained without the dues being paid to the custom-house, and a strict scrutiny taking place.

[William Fort, now called the castle, was blown up in 1766, when the British troops evacuated Boston, but was soon after, with all its fortifications, repaired. The fort that commands the harbour is at present furnished with 50 pieces of cannon mounted, and above 40 others lying dismounted.]

WILLIAMS, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes; in the district and parish of St. Thomas.

[Williams, a township of Northampton County, Pennsylvania.]

[WILLIAM'S SOUND, Prince, on the *n. w.* coast of N. America. Its *e.* point is in lat. 60° 19′ *n.* and long. 146° 53′ *w.* and Cape Elizabeth which is its *w.* point, and the *e.* point of Cook's River, is in lat. 59° 10′ and long. 152° 15′.]

[WILLIAMSBOROUGH, a post town of N. Carolina, and capital of Granville County, pleasantly situated on a creek which falls into the Roanoke. It carries on a brisk trade with the back counties, and contained in 1790, between 30 and 40 houses, a court-house, goal, and flourishing academy. It is 17 miles from Warrenton, 48 *n. e.* of Hillsborough, 56 *w. n. w.* of Halifax, and 407 from Philadelphia.]

[WILLIAMSBURG, a post-town of Virginia, lies 47 miles *e.* of Richmond, situate between two creeks, one falling into James, the other into York River. The distance of each landing-place is about a mile from the town. During the regal government it was proposed to unite these creeks, by a canal passing through the centre of the town; but the removal of the seat of government rendered it no longer an object of importance. It contained, in 1790, about 200 houses, and had about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a pleasant square in the centre of about ten acres, through which runs the principal street *e.* and *w.* about a mile in length, and more than 100 feet wide. At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college, and capitol. Besides these, there is an Episcopal church, a prison, a court-house, a magazine, now occupied as a market, and a hospital for lunatics, calculated to accommodate between 20 and 30 patients, in separate rooms or cells. The house is neatly kept, and the patients well attended; but convalescents have not sufficient room for free air and exercise without making their escape. Not far from the square stood the governor's house, or palace, as it was called. This was burnt during the war, while it was occupied as an American hospital. The house of the president of the college, occupied also as an hospital by the French army, shared the same fate. This has since been rebuilt at the expense of the French government. In the capitol is a large marble statue of Narbone Berkley, Lord Botetourt, a man distinguished for his love of piety, literature and good government, and formerly governor of Virginia. It was erected at the expense of the State, some time since the year 1771. The capitol is little better than in ruins, and this elegant statue is exposed to the rudeness of negroes and boys, and is shamefully defaced. A late act of the assembly authorises the pulling down one half of this building, to defray the charge of keeping the other half in repair. The college of William and Mary, fixed here, was founded in the time of King William and Queen Mary, who granted to it 20,000 acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on certain tobaccos exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the statute of 25 Car. II. The assembly also gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and skins and furs exported. From these resources it received upwards of £.3000 The buildings are of brick, sufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps 100 students. By its charter it was to be under the government of 20 visitors, who were to be its legislators, and to have a president and six professors, who were incorporated. It was allowed a representative in the general assembly. Under this charter, a professorship of the Greek and Latin languages, a professorship of mathematics, one of moral philosophy, and two of divinity, were established. To these were annexed, for a sixth profsssorship, a considerable donation by a Mr. Boyle of England, for the instruction of the Indians, and their conversion to Christianity. This was called the professorship of Brafferton, from an estate of that name in England, purchased with the monies given. A court of admiralty sits here whenever a controversy arises. It is 12 miles *e.* of York Town, 47 *e.* of Richmond, and 30 *n. w.* of Nor-

folk. Least heat here, 6° 0′, mean heat 60° 8′ greatest heat 98°. Lat. 37° 16′ *n.* Long. 76° 48′ *w.*]

[WILLIAMSBURG, a County of Virginia, between York and James's Rivers, and was joined in the enumeration of inhabitants, in 1790, with York County. These together contained 5,233 inhabitants.]

[WILLIAMSBURG, a township of Massachusetts, Hampshire County, on the *w.* side of Connecticut River, having Hatfield on the *e.* It contained, in 1790, a handsome Congregational church, 159 houses, and 1,049 inhabitants. In the year 1760, this township was a wilderness. It lies seven miles from Connecticut River, eight *n. w.* of Northampton, and 84 *w.* of Boston.]

[WILLIAMSBURG, a post-town of New York, Ontario County, situate on the *e.* side of Gennessee River, near where Canaserago Creek empties into that river; 24 miles *s. w.* of Canandaigua, 35 *n. w.* of Bath. It lies *n. w.* of Athens or Tioga Point.]

[WILLIAMSBURG, called also JONES-TOWN, a town of Pennsylvania, Dauphine County, at the junction of Little Swatara with Swatara River. It has a German Lutheran and Calvinist church, and about 80 dwelling-houses. It is 20 miles *n. e.* by *e.* of Harrisburg. Also the name of a township in Luzerne County.]

[WILLIAMSBURG, a village of Maryland in Talbot County, five miles *n. e.* of Easton, and four *n. w.* of King's Town.]

[WILLIAMSPORT, a post-town of Maryland, Washington County, on the *n.* side of Patowmack River, at the mouth of Conegocheague Creek, eight miles *s.* of the Pennsylvania line, six *s. w.* of Hagarstown, 32 *n.* by *e.* of Winchester, in Virginia, 24 *s.* by *w.* of Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania, and 127 *w.* by *s.* of Philadelphia.]

[WILLIAMSON, a township of New York, Ontario County. In 1796, there were 142 of its inhabitants electors.]

WILLIAMSLAND, a country situate on the shore of Baffin's Bay, in the N. Continent and Arctic region of America. It is found under this name in the English maps, although there be no description of it given.

WILLIAMSTAD, a city and capital of the County of Talbot, in the province of Maryland, of the United States. It was given this name by an act of the assembly of Oxford, and was then declared a sea-port: at the same time there was granted for the use of the public, a portion of land for pasturage.

[WILLIAMSTOWN, a township of Vermont, Orange County, on the height of land between Connecticut River and Lake Champlain, about 20 miles from the former, and 30 from the latter. It is bounded *e.* by Washington, and *w.* by Northfield, and contained, in 1790, 146 inhabitants. Stephen's Branch, a stream which runs *n.* to Onion River, rises in this township.

[WILLIAMSTOWN, a mountainous township of Massachusetts, in the *n. w.* corner of the state and in Berkshire County, containing, in 1790, 1769 inhabitants. It is well watered by Hoosack and Green Rivers, the former of which is here eight rods wide. On these streams are four grist-mills, three saw-mills, and a fulling-mill. The main county road passes through it. Colonel Ephraim Williams laid the foundation of an academy several years since, and endowed it by a handsome donation of lands. In 1790, partly by lottery, and partly by the liberal donation of gentlemen in the town, a brick edifice was erected, 82 feet by 42, and four stories high, containing 24 rooms for students, a large school-room, a dining-hall, and a room for public speaking. In 1793, this academy was erected into a college, by an act of the legislature, by the name of Williams' College, in honour to its liberal founder. The languages and sciences usually taught in the American colleges are taught here. Board, tuition, and other expenses of education are very low; and from its situation and other circumstances, it is likely, in a short time, to become an institution of great utility and importance. The first public commencement was held at this college in September, 1795. In 1796, the legislature granted two townships of land to Williams' College. There were, in 1796, 101 students in the four classes in this college, besides 30 pupils in the academy connected with the college. A company was incorporated the year above-mentioned, to bring water in pipes into the town street. It is 28 miles *n.* of Great Barrington, and 97 *n. w.* of Boston.]

[WILLIAMSTOWN, a post-town and the capital of Martin County, N. Carolina, is situate on Roanoke River, and contains but few houses, besides the court-house and goal. It is 20 miles from Blountsville, 19 from Plymouth, and 28 from Halifax.]

[WILLIMANTIC, a small river of Connecticut, which runs a *s. e.* course, and uniting with Natchaug River, forms the Shetucket at Windham.]

[WILLINBOROUGH, a township of New Jersey, situate in Burlington County, on Delaware River, about 14 miles from Philadelphia. It has

generally a thin soil, but considerable quantities of fruits and vegetables are raised here for the Philadelphia market.]

[WILLINGTON, a township of Connecticut, in Tolland County, six miles *e.* of Tolland, and 19 *n. e.* of Hartford, and was settled in 1719. The lands are rough and hilly. The earthquake on Sunday evening, Oct. 29, 1727, was severely felt in this town.]

WILLIS, a small river of the province and colony of Virginia in N. America. It runs *n. n. e.* and enters the river James.

[Willis, a township in Chester County, Pennsylvania.]

[Willis Creek, in Maryland, falls into the Patowmack from the *n.* at Fort Cumberland.]

[Willis Island, in the S. Atlantic Ocean, is near the *n. w.* end of S. Georgia, and has Bird Island to the *n.* of it. Lat. 54° *s.* Long. 38° 30′ *w.*]

[WILLISTON, a township of Vermont, in Chittenden County, joins Burlington on the *n. w.* It contained, in 1790, 471 inhabitants.]

WILLOUGHBY, Bay of, in the island Antigua or Verde, one of the Caribees; on the *s. e.* coast, is two leagues long and one at its mouth; although the greater part of this is occupied by a sand bank, which runs from *n.* to *s.*, the said bank being nearly met by the extremity of Sandy Island, so that the entrance here is extremely narrow; not but that ships can pass through, and also, when they are in, lie in perfect security, excepting near the mouth. On the left side is Horse Rock, which stands out of the water, and is most conspicuous from the waves breaking strongly against it.]

[Willoughby, Lake, in Vermont, in the township of Westmore. It is about six miles long and one broad, and sends a stream which runs *n.* and empties into Lake Memprhemagog, in the township of Salem. This lake furnishes fish resmbling bass, of an excellent flavour, weighing from 10 to 30 pounds. People travel 20 miles to this lake to procure a winter's stock of this fish.]

[WILLSBOROUGH, a new settled township in Clinton County, New York; bounded on the *s.* by the town of Crown Point, on the *n.* by the *s.* line of a patent, which includes the river Au Sable at its mouth, continuing *w.* to that part of the county of Montgomery, now called Herkemer County. It contained 375 inhabitants in 1790. In 1796, there were 160 of the inhabitants electors. It is a fine champaign, fertile country, inhabited by a number of industrious, thriving farmers. Its cultivation has been rapidly advancing. In this town is a remarkable split rock, which is a small point of a mountain projecting about 50 yards into Lake Champlain. This disjointed point has, from the appearance of the opposite sides, and their exact fitness for each other, doubtless been rent from the main rock, by some violent shock of nature. It is removed about 20 feet, and has on its point, a surface of nearly half an acre, which has sufficiency of soil, and is covered with wood. The height of the rock on each side of the fissure is about 12 feet. The River Boquet runs through this town a considerable distance, and is navigable for boats two miles, where there are falls and mills. This town was partly settled before the year 1775. It commands a beautiful view of Lake Champlain, and lies 220 miles *n.* of New York city.]

[WILLS Cove, on the *n. e.* side of the isthmus of the island of St. Kitt's, in the W. Indies, to the eastward, southerly from N. Friar and Little Friar Bays.]

[Wills Creek, or Caicuctuck, a branch of Patowmack River, is 30 or 40 yards wide at its mouth, where Fort Cumberland stood. It affords no navigation as yet, and runs a short course *s.* On the *e.* side of it are the mountains of the same name, which lay in a direction from *n. n. e.* to *s. s. w.*]

[Wills town, an Indian village in Ohio, on the *n. e.* bank of Muskingum River, 45 miles from its mouth, and 101 *s. w.* from Pittsburg, by the Indian path through the Indian town.]

[WILMANTON, in the State of New York, stands on Wallkill, between Newburg and New Brunswick.]

[WILMINGTON, one of the *e.* maritime districts of N. Carolina; bounded *n. e.* by Newbern district, *s. e.* by the Atlantic Ocean; *s. w.* by S. Carolina; and *n. w.* by Fayette. It comprehends the counties of Brunswick, New Hanover, Onslow, Duplin, and Bladen. It contained, in 1790, 26,035 inhabitants; of whom 10,056 were slaves.]

[Wilmington, a port of entry and post-town of N. Carolina, capital of the above district, is situate on the *e.* side of the *e.* branch of Cape Fear or Clarendon River; 23 miles from Cape Fear, and 78 *s. w.* of Newbern. The course of the river, as it passes by the town, is nearly from *n.* to *s.* and the breadth 150 yards. Opposite the town are two islands extending with the course of the river, and dividing it into three channels; they afford the finest rice fields in N. Carolina. The town is regularly built, and contained, in 1790, about 250 houses, a handsome Episcopal church, a court-house, and gaol. Having suffered

much by two fires, one-fourth of the town, which has been rebuilt, is of brick. Its markets are well supplied with fish, and all manner of provisions. A considerable trade is carried on to the W. India islands and the adjacent States. The exports for one year, ending September 30, 1794, amounted to 133,534 dollars. Those of all the other ports of the state, amounted only to 177,598 dollars. It is 76 miles *s. e* of Fayetteville, 133 *s. s. w.* of Edenton, 127 *n. e.* of Charleston, S. Carolina. Lat. 34° 11′ *n.* Long. 78° 6′ *w.*]

[WILMINGTON, a township of Vermont, in Windham County, contained, in 1790, 645 inhabitants, who are chiefly wealthy farmers. It lies on Deerfield River, on the *e.* side of the Green Mountain, on the high road from Bennington to Brattleborough, about 14 miles from each. Considerable quantities of maple sugar are made in it; some farmers make 1000 or 1400 pounds a season. The Haystack, in the *n. w.* corner of this township, is among the highest of the range of the Green Mountains. It has a pond near the top of it, about half a mile in length, round which deer and moose are found,]

[WILMINGTON, a township of Massachusetts, in Midolesex County, 16 miles from Boston. It was incorporated in 1730, and contained, in 1790, 710 inhabitants. Hops, in great quantities are raised in this town.]

[WILMINGTON, a port of entry and post-town of the State of Delaware, and the most considerable town in the State. It stands in Newcastle County, on the *n.* side of Christiana Creek, between Christiana and Brandywine creeks, which at this place are about a mile distant from each other, but uniting below the town, they join the Delaware in one stream, 400 yards wide at the mouth. The scite of the principal part of the town is on the *s. w.* side of a hill, which rises 109 feet above the tide, two miles from Delaware River, and 24 *s. w.* from Philadelphia. On the *n. e.* side of the same hill, on the Brandywine, there are 13 mills for grain, and about 40 neat dwelling-houses, which form a beautiful appendage to the town. The Christiana admits vessels of 14 feet draught of water to the town; and those of six feet draught, eight miles further, where the navigation ends; and the Brandywine admits those of seven feet draught to the mills. The town is regularly laid out in squares similar to Philadelphia, and contains upwards of 600 houses, mostly of brick, and 3000 inhabitants. It has six places of public worship, viz. two for Presbyterians, one for Swedish Episcopalians, one for Friends, one for Baptists, and one for Methodists. Here are two market-houses, a poor-house, which stands on the *w.* side of the town, and is 120 feet by 40, built of stone, and three stories high, for the reception of the paupers of Newcastle County. There is another stone building which was used as an academy, and was supported for some time with considerable reputation, but by a defect in the constitution of the seminary, or some other cause, it has, of late been entirely neglected as a place of tuition. There are, however, nearly 300 children in the different schools in town. About the year 1736, the first houses were built at this place; and the town was incorporated a few years afterwards. Its officers are two burgesses, six assistants, and two constables, all of whom are annually chosen. For other particulars, see DELAWARE. Lat. 39° 43′ *n.* Long. 75° 35′ *w.*]

WILMINGTON, an island of the N. Sea, near the coast of Georgia; one of those called the Georgian, situate between the islands Tiby and Wasa.

[WILMOT, a township of Nova Scotia, Annapolis County, settled from Ireland and New England.]

WILSONS, a small river of the province and colony of S. Carolina; it runs *e.* and enters the Congary.

[WILSONVILLE, a town of Pennsylvania, newly laid out on the Walenpapeck, at its junction with the Lexawacsein, 91 miles *n.* of Philadelphia. Here are already erected fourteen houses, a saw and grist mill, and a large building for manufacturing sail cloth. The creek here falls upwards of 300 feet, some say 500, in the space of a mile; for 17 miles above the falls the creek has a gentle current.]

[WILTON, a township of New Hampshire, Hillsborough County, *s. w.* of Amherst, adjoining, about 47 miles *w. s. w.* of Portsmouth. It was incorporated in 1762, and contained in 1790, 1105 inhabitants.]

WILTON, a small village of the same province, in Charleston district, called by some New London. It was founded by the Swiss, under the direction of one named Zebabbular, by permission of the assembly. It stands on the *n. e.* shore of the river Edisto, and 12 miles from its mouth. This town did much mischief to that of Purrysburg, which is on the frontier of the county, and if it had been better established at first, it would have drawn a still more numerous population; 22 miles distant from it is the fort of Edisto, to keep the Indians in subjection: it is 22 miles *s. e.* of Charleston.

WILTOWN, a settlement of the province of Georgia of the United States; at the mouth of the river Pompon.

[WILMACOMACK, a village of New York, in Suffolk County, Long Island; six miles *w.* by *s.* of Smithtown, and *n. e.* of Huntingdon, and 40 *e.* by *n.* of New York city.]

[WINCHELSEA, an island in the *s.* Pacific Ocean, which appears like three islands. It is about 30 miles *s.* by *e.* of Sir Charles Hardy's Island.]

[WINCHENDON, a post-town of Massachusetts, in Worcester County, seven miles *n.* of Gardner, 30 *n. n. w.* of Worcester, and 53 *n. w.* by *w.* of Boston. This township was formerly called Ipswich Canada, until it was incorporated in 1764. It is on Miller's River, and contained in 1790, 950 inhabitants. This place was visited by a dreadful tornado, October 21, 1795, which did considerable damage.]

[WINCHESTER, a township of Connecticut, in Litchfield County, about 12 or 15 miles *n.* of Litchfield.]

[WINCHESTER, a township of New Hampshire, in Cheshire County, *e.* of Hinsdale and Port Dummer, adjoining. It is 76 miles *w. s. w.* from Portsmouth, and contains 1209 inhabitants.]

[WINCHESTER, the chief town of Clarke County, Kentucky.]

[WINCHESTER, a township in the county of Dundas, in Upper Canada; it lies in the rear, and to the *n.* of Williamsburgh.]

[WINCHESTER, or FREDERICKTOWN, a post-town of Virginia, and the capital of Frederick County. It is situate near the head of Opeckon Creek, which empties into Patowmack River; about 32 miles *s. w.* from the celebrated passage of the Patowmack through the Blue Ridge. It is a handsome flourishing town, standing upon low and broken ground, and has a number of respectable buildings; among which are a court house, goal, a Presbyterian, an Episcopalian, a Methodist, and a new Roman Catholic church. The dwelling-houses are about 350 in number several of which are built of stone. It is a corporation, and contained, in 1790, nearly 2000 inhabitants. It was formerly fortified; but the works are now in ruins. It is 20 miles *e.* by *s.* of Romney, 78 *n. e.* by *n.* of Staunton, 62 *w. n. w.* of Washington, in Maryland, 108 *n. w.* of Richmond, 153 from Philadelphia. Lat. 39° 17′ 30″ *n.* Long. 78° 21′ 30″ *w.*]

[WINDGAP, a pass in the Blue Mountains in Pennsylvania; about nine miles *s. w.* of Penn's Fort. Although 100 feet higher than the present bed of the Delaware, it is thought to have been formerly part of the bed of that river. The Wind Gap is a mile broad, and the stones on it such as seem to have been washed for ages by water running over them.]

[WINDHAM, a county in the *s. e.* corner of Vermont; having the State of Massachusetts *s.* and Connecticut River *e.* which divides it from New Hampshire. It contained, in 1790, 22 townships, and 17,693 inhabitants. Chief towns, Newsane and Putney.]

[WINDHAM, a county in the *n. e.* corner of Connecticut, having the State of Massachusetts *n.* and the State of Rhode Island *e.* It contained, in 1790, 13 townships and 28,921 inhabitants, including 184 slaves. Chief town, Windham.]

[WINDHAM, the capital of the above county, and a post town, is situated on Shetucket River, 12 miles *n.* by *w.* of Norwich, and 20 *s. e.* of Hartford. It contains between 60 and 70 compact houses, a court-house, gaol, an academy, and a Congregational church. The river Willimantick from the *n. w.* and Natchaug from the *n.* meet in the *n. w.* part of the township, and form the Shetucket, a pleasant river, affording plenty of fish, particularly salmon, at some seasons of the year. The township was settled from Norwich, in 1686, and was incorporated in 1702.]

[WINDHAM, a township of New Hampshire, Rockingham County, is about 16 miles *s. w.* of Exeter, and 27 from Portsmouth. It contained, in 1790, 663 inhabitants.]

[WINDHAM, a township of the district of Maine, Cumberland County. It was incorporated in 1762, and contained, in 1790, 938 inhabitants.]

[WINDHAM, a township, in the county of Norfolk, in Upper Canada. It lies in the rear, and *n.* of Charlotteville.]

WINDMILL POINT, on the coast of the province and colony of N. Carolina, within the bay of Chesapeak.

WINDSOR, a city of the province of Georgia in the United States; situate on the shore of the river Savannah.

[WINDSOR, a township of Nova Scotia, in Hants County, near the river St. Croix, which empties into the Avon. The rivers Kenetcoot and Cocmiguen (so called by the Indians) run through this township and empty into the Avon. On these rivers are flourishing settlements and fertile land. Lime stone and plaister of Paris are found here. The lake Potawock (so called by the Indians) lies between the head of St. Margaret's Bay and the main road from Halifax

to Windsor; the great lake of Shubenaccadie lies on the *e.* side of this road, about seven miles from it, and 21 from Halifax.]

[WINDSOR, a county of Vermont, bounded *n.* by Orange, *s.* by Windsor, *e.* by Connecticut River, and *w.* by Rutland and part of Addison County. It contained, in 1790, 22 townships, and 15,748 inhabitants.]

[WINDSOR, a post town of Vermont, and capital of the above county, is situate on the *w.* bank of Connecticut River, 16 miles *n.* by *w.* of Charleston, in New Hampshire, 28 *e.* by *s.* of Rutland, 50 miles *n. e.* of Bennington. The township contained, in 1790, 1452 inhabitants. This, with Rutland, is alternately the seat of the state legislature.]

[WINDSOR, a hilly township of Massachusetts, in Berkshire County, 20 miles *n. n. w.* of Lenox, and 100 *w.* by *n.* of Boston. The county road to Northampton passes through it, also the road from Pittsfield to Deerfield. It gives rise to Housatonick and Westfield Rivers, on which are four saw-mills and two corn-mills. It was incorporated in 1771, and contained, in 1790, 916 inhabitants. In the gore, adjoining Adams and Windsor, are about 500 inhabitants.]

[WINDSOR, a considerable and very pleasant town of Hartford County, Connecticut, on the *w.* side of Connecticut River, about seven miles *n.* of Hartford. Here Windsor Ferry River, formed by the junction of Farmington and Poquabock Rivers, empties into the Connecticut from the *w.* Windsor Ferry River divides the township into the upper and lower parishes.]

[WINDSOR, E. See E. WINDSOR.]

[WINDSOR, a township of New Jersey, Middlesex County, containing, in 1790, 2,838 inhabitants, including 190 slaves.]

[WINDSOR, a township of Pennsylvania, in York County.]

[WINDSOR, a post town and the capital of Bertie County, N. Carolina; situate on Cushai River, and contains, besides a few houses, a court-house and gaol. It is 20 miles *w.* by *s.* of Edenton, 17 from Plymouth.]

[WINDWARD PASSAGE, a name given to a course from the *s. e.* part of the island of Jamaica, in the W. Indies, and extending for 160 leagues to the *n.* side of Crooked Island in the Bahamas. Ships have often sailed through this channel from the *n.* part of it to the island of Cuba, or the Gulf of Mexico, notwithstanding the common opinion to the contrary, on account of the current: vessels in this case keep the Bahama shore on board, and meeting the wind in summer for the most part of the channel *e.* with a counter current on shore, they push easily through it.]

[WINDWARD Point, near the *e.* extremity of the island of St. Christopher's, is the *e.* point of Sandy Hill Bay; about two miles to the *w. n. w.* of St. Anthony's Hill Point.]

[WINEE, or BLACK RIVER, in S. Carolina, rises in Camden district, and running *s. e.* through Cheraws into Georgetown district, unites with Pedee River, about three miles above Georgetown.]

WINEAU, an island of the N. Sea, near the *s. w.* coast, in Long Bay, close to Cape Cateret.

WINEKINE, a river of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia, which runs *s.* and enters the Orinoco, between the Marivany and the Arrewou.

WINEPISCOCHO, see WINNIPISSIOGEE.

WINGEN, a small river between those of Vinian and Clarendon, in the county of this name, and province and colony of Carolina. On its shore the English have an establishment called Charlestown with a tolerable population.

[WINHALL or WINDHALL, a township of Vermont, in Bennington County, about 18 miles *n. e.* of Bennington. It contained, in 1790, 155 inhabitants.]

WINISINIT, a city of the county of Middlesex and Massachusetts Bay, in the United States; situate on the *n.* side of the bay of Boston, three miles from this bay, and to the *w.* of it having Charlestown, the river Mistic intervening.

[WINLAND, a country accidentally discovered by Biron or Biorn, a Norman, in 1001; supposed to be a part of the island of Newfoundland. It was agian visited, and an intercourse opened between it and Greenland. In 1221, Eric, bishop of Greenland, went to Winland to recover and convert his countrymen, who had degenerated into savages. This prelate never returned to Greenland; nor was any thing more heard of Winland for several centuries.]

[WINLOCK, or WENLOCK, a township of Vermont, in Essex County, *w.* of Minehead.]

[WINNIPISEOGEE, or WINNIPISSIOKEE, a lake in New Hampshire, and the largest collection of water in the state. It is 18½ miles in length from *s. e.* to *n. w.* and of very unequal breadth, but no where more than eight miles. Some very long necks of land project into it; and it contains several islands, large and small, and on which rattle snakes are common. It abounds with fish from 6 to 20 pounds weight. The mountains which surround it, give rise to many streams which flow into it; and between it and

the mountains, are several lesser ponds, which communicate with it. Contiguous to this lake are the townships of Moultonborough on the *n. w.* Tuftonborough and Wolfborough on the *n. e.* Meredith and Gilmantown on the *s. w.* and a tract of land, called the Gore, on the *s. e.* From the *s. e.* extremity of this lake, called Merry Meeting Bay, to the *n. w.* part called Senter Harbour, there is good navigation in the summer, and generally a good road in the winter; the lake is frozen about three months in the year, and many sleighs and teams, from the circumjacent towns, cross it on the ice. See AQUEDOCHTON. Winnipiseogee River conveys the waters of the lake into Pemigewasset River, through its *e.* bank at New Chester.]

[WINNEBAGO, a lake of the N.W. Territory; *w.* of Michigan Lake, and *s. w.* of Bay Puan, into which it sends its waters. It is about 15 miles long from *e.* to *w.* and six wide. It receives a large stream from the *s. w.* called Crocodile River. Fox River enters it from the *w.* and by it, through Ouisconsing River, has communication with Mississippi River, interrupted by a portage of only three miles. The centre of the lake lies in about lat. 43° 51′ *n.* and long. 86° 38′ *w.* See OUISCONSING and FOX RIVERS.]

[WINNEBAGOES, an Indian nation inhabiting round the lake of the same name, who can furnish 2 or 300 warriors. Their town stands on an island at the *e.* end of the lake, of about 50 acres extent, and distant from Bay Puan 35 miles, according to the course of the river. The town contains about 50 houses, which are strongly built with pallisades. The land adjacent to the lake is very fertile, abounding spontaneously with grapes, plums, and other fruit. The people raise a great quantity of Indian corn, beans, pumpkins, squashes, melons, and tobacco. The lake abounds with fish, and in the autumn or fall, with geese, ducks, and teal; and are very fat and well flavoured by feeding on wild rice, which grows plentifully in these parts. Mr. Carver thinks from the result of his inquiries of the origin, language, and customs of this people, that they originally resided in some of the provinces of Mexico, and migrated to this country about a century ago. Their language is different from any other yet discovered; and they converse with other nations in the Chippeway tongue.]

[WINNIPEG, or WINNIPECK, a large lake of Upper Canada, in the territory belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, about 284 geographical miles *n. w.* from the Grand Portage, on the *n. w.* side of Lake Superior. It is 236 geographical miles in length, (exclusive of Playgreen Lake, which, in fact, might properly be said to be a part of it, and which would add 10 or 12 miles to the above length) from *n. n. w.* to *s. s. e.* and of very irregular breadth; its greatest breadth being about 58 miles and its least about five, according to a very recent survey. It lies between lat. 50° 22′ and 53° 57′ *n.*, and between long. 95° 48′ and 99° 12′ *w.* On its *w.* side it has communication with Winnipegoos, or Little Winnipeg Lake, by Dauphin River, St. Martin's Lake, and Waterhen River. On its *s.* side it receives the Assineboine, or Red River; and on the *s. e.* side the river of its name. On the *e.* side it receives Mainwaring's River, Beren's River, and Poplar River, besides many other inferior ones. On its *w.* side, towards its *n.* end, it is entered by the Saskatchuvan, a large and navigable river, which has its origin in the Rocky Mountains, and is, with Lake Winnipeg, the means of many very important water communications, the principal of which we shall name. On account of its head waters interlocking with those of the Oregan or Columbia, it affords, with few and short portages, a water communication from the S. Sea to Hudson's Bay, with the addition of Port Nelson; and another from the S. Sea to the St. Lawrence River, through the Lake of the Woods, Lake Superior, Lake Huron, Lake Erie, and Lake Ontario; and also from the S. Sea to the Gulf of Mexico, by the *s.* branch of the Red River and the Mississippi. But there is a much shorter communication from the S. Sea to the Gulf of Mexico, by the Missourie River, whose head waters also interlock with those of the Columbia. On the *w.* of this lake is the territory called Assiniboia, being a grant from the Hudson's Bay Company. Assiniboia is bounded on the *n.* by lat. 52° 2′., on the *w.* by an ideal line drawn from the intersection of lat. 52° with the Red River, and in the *s.* by the boundary of the company's territories, or, as is commonly called, by the Height of Land. A settlement has been recently formed on Red River by Scotch emigrants, and promises to become flourishing. The Stony Indians inhabiting the banks of the river and the plains to the *w.* live much on horseback after the manner of the Tartars. The territory about Lake Winnepeg is said by Carver and other travellers to be very fertile, producing vast quantities of wild rice, and the sugar-tree in great plenty. The climate is considerably more temperate here than it is upon the Atlantic coast, 10° farther *s.*]

[WINNIPEG, Little, a lake which lies *w.* of the

former, and has communication with Lake Minitobah on the *s.*, which last sends the waters of both into Winnipeg Lake, in an *e. n. e.* course. It is about 95 miles long and about 23 broad. Fort Dauphin is seated on a lake contiguous, on the *w.* whose waters empty into this lake.]

[WINNIPEG River, runs *n. w.* into the lake of its name. It is the outlet of the waters of a vast chain of lakes; the chief of which are La Plue or Rainy Lake, and Lake of the Woods.]

[WINNSBOROUGH, a post-town and the capital of Fairfield County, S. Carolina; situate on a branch of Wateree Creek, which empties into the river of that name. It contained, in 1790, about 25 houses, a handsome court-house, a gaol, and a college called Mount Zion College, which is supported by a respectable society of gentlemen, and has been long incorporated. The institution flourishes, and bids fair for usefulness. It is 26 miles *n. n. w.* of Columbia.]

[WINSLOW, a post-town of the district of Maine, Lincoln County; situate on Kennebeck River, 24 miles *n.* of Harrington. Fort Halifax was built at this place, in 1754, on the point of land at the confluence of Sebasticook and Kennebeck Rivers. This town is 65 miles *n.* by *e.* of Portland. It was incorporated in 1771, and contained, in 1790, 779 inhabitants, and, in 1797, about 1500.]

[WINTERHAM, a place in Amelia County, Virginia. Black-lead is found here; but no works for its manufacture are established: those who want it go and procure it for themselves.]

[WINTHROP, a post-town of the district of Maine, Lincoln County, between Androscoggin and Kennebeck Rivers, about 10 miles from each; five miles *e.* of Monmouth; 10 *w.* by *s.* of Hallowel, now Harrington court-house. The township in which it stands was incorporated in 1771, and contained, in 1790, 1240 inhabitants.]

[WINTHROP's Bay, on the *n.* coast of the island of Antigua. Maiden Island, a small isle *s. s. w.* of Long Island, is due *e.* of the *s. e.* point of this bay.]

[WINTON, a county of Orangeburg district, S. Carolina.]

[WINTON, a post-town of N. Carolina, and capital of Hartford County, on the *s. w.* side of Chowan River, a few miles below the place where Meherrin and Nottaway join their waters. It has a court-house and gaol, and a few compact houses. It is 12 miles from Murfreesborough, 13 from the bridge on Bennet's Creek, and 60 *s. s. e.* of Petersburg, in Virginia.]

[WINYAM, a river of the county of Clarendon, in the province and colony of Carolina. It has a course of 25 leagues, as far as the Ashley, and is capable of admitting large vessels, but is inferior to Port Royal; neither has it any settlements upon it.]

[WINYAW Bay, on the coast of S. Carolina, communicates with the ocean 12 miles below Georgetown. See GEORGETOWN and PEDEE RIVER.]

[WIOMING. See WYOMING.]

[WISCASSET, a port of entry and post-town of the district of Maine, Lincoln County, on the *w.* side of Sheepscut River, eight miles *s. w.* of New Milford, on the *e.* side of Kennebeck River, *n. e.* of Bath, 36 *n. e.* of Portland. It is a part of the township of Pownalborough, and is very flourishing. It contained, in 1790, a congregational church, and about 120 houses. Its navigation is greater in proportion to its size and number of inhabitants than any part of Massachusetts. A gazette is published here, and the county courts are held in it. Wiscasset Point is three leagues from Cross River. The exports for one year, ending September 30, 1794, amounted to 23,329 dollars.]

[WITCHARN Bay, is within the great sound in the Bermuda islands, in the W. Indies; situate at the *e.* part of the bottom or *s.* part of the sound, having two small islands at the mouth of it.]

WITHY-GOOD, a bay of the *s.* coast of the island of Jamaica; on the shore of which are some 40 houses for the convenience of the vessels which frequently arrive here. The surrounding country is agreeable.

WITOUPO, a settlement of Indians of the province and colony of S. Carolina; on the shore of a river.

WITUMKI, a settlement of Indians of the same province as the former; on the shore of the river Albama.

[WOAHOO, one of the Sandwich isles, in the N. Pacific Ocean, seven leagues *n. w.* of Morotoi Island. It is high land, and contains 60,000 inhabitants; and has good anchoring ground in lat. 21° 43′ *n.* and long. 157° 51′ *w.*]

[WOAPANACHKY, the name of the Delaware nation, in their language.]

[WOAPO, one of the Ingraham islands, less in size than Christiana. The body of it lies in lat. 9° 27′ *s.* It bears *n. w.* by *w.*, about 20 leagues from Resolution Bay. It was called Adams by Captain Ingraham; and a small island to the *s.* of it he called Lincoln. Captain Roberts afterwards discovered them, and named them

from his ship and schooner; the larger, Jefferson, and the lesser, Resolution.]

WOBURN, a city of the county of Middlesex, in Massachusett's Bay, between Medford and Wilminham; 10 miles *n.* of Cambridge, and seven *n. e.* of Lexington. It was incorporated, in 1642, by the name of Wooborne, and was till then known by the name of Charlestown Village. It contained, in 1790, 1727 inhabitants.

WOKUKAY, a settlement of Indians of the province and colony of S. Carolina; situate near the river Coussa.

[WOLCOTT, a township of Vermont, in Orleans County, *s.* of Craftsbury, containing, in 1790, 32 inhabitants. La Moille River runs *n. w.* through it.]

[WOLF, a small boatable river of Tennesse, which runs *w.* into Mississippi River, about 19 miles *s.* of Hatchy River, and 55 from Reelfoot. It is 50 yards wide several miles from its mouth, which is very near the *s. w.* corner of the State, in lat. 35°.]

[WOLFBOROUGH, a township of New Hampshire, Strafford County, on the *e.* side of Winnipisiogee Lake, and contained, in 1790, 447 inhabitants. It contains some fine farms, and particularly that which formerly belonged to Governor Wentworth.]

[WOLFE Island, in Upper Canada, lies opposite to Kingston and Pittsburgh, in the narrow part, where Lake Ontario forces into the St. Lawrence.]

[WOLFORD, a township of Upper Canada, lying in the county of Grenville, in the rear and to the *n.* of the townships of Elizabeth Town and Augusta, and being washed by the river Radeau.]

[WOLVES Islands, lie near Campo Bello Island, on the easternmost coast of the district of Maine. Between these the soundings are from 50 to 100 fathoms. Lat. *n.* 45° 3′. *w.* long. 66° 40′. From Grand Mannan Island to Wolves Islands, the course is *n. e.* by *n.* three leagues.]

WOMASCA, a small river of the province and country of the Iroques Indians, in Canada. It runs *n.* and enters St. Peter's Lake of the river St. Lawrence.

[WOMELDORF, a post-town of Pennsylvania, in Berks County; situate on the *w.* side of a small stream which falls into Tulpehocken Creek. It contained, in 1790, about 40 houses, and a German Lutheran and Calvinistic church. It is 57 miles *n. w.* of Philadelphia.]

WOOD, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the district of the parish of St. Andrew.

Wood, two islands of the N. Sea; situate within Hudson's Bay, and opposite the point of Comfort.

Wood, a bay on the *n.* coast of the Strait of Magellan, close to Cape San Isidro.

[Wood Creek, a sluggish stream which rises in the high lands, a little *e.* of Fort Edward, on Hudson's River; and, after running 25 miles, falls into the head of Lake Champlain at Skenesborough. It has a fall at its mouth, otherwise it is navigable for batteaux for 20 miles up to Fort Anne. On its shores a battle was fought between the French and the English, September 8, 1755.

Wood Creek runs *w.* and empties into Lake Oneida. See Oneida, Onondago, and Mohawk River.]

[Wood Island, on the sea-coast of the district of Maine, five leagues *n. e.* of Cape Porpoise, and *s. w.* by *s.* four leagues of Richman's Island.]

[WOODS, Lake of the, in N. America, in the territory belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, is so called from the large quantities of wood growing on its banks; such as oak, pine, fir, spruce, &c. This lake lies 90 miles *s. e.* of the *s.* end of Winnipeg Lake. Its length from *n.* to *s.* is about 60 miles; and of very irregular breadth, being in some places 47 miles wide, and in other places not more than seven. Its general shape is in the form of an S. It is about 178 miles *w. n. w.* of the Grand Portage on the *n. w.* side of Lake Superior.]

[WOODBRIDGE, a post-town of New Jersey, Middlesex County; on the great road from New York to Philadelphia, on a stream which falls into Arthur Kull, above Amboy. It is about three miles *n.* by *w.* of Amboy, 10 *s. w.* of Elizabeth Town, and 55 *n. e.* of Philadelphia. The township contained, in 1790, 3,550 inhabitants, including 256 slaves.]

[Woodbridge, a township of Connecticut, New Haven County, about seven miles *n. w.* of New Haven City.]

[WOODBURY, a township of Vermont, in Caledonia County, 15 or 20 miles *w. n. w.* of Barnet.]

[Woodbury, a post-town of New Jersey, and capital of Gloucester County; situate near a small stream, which empties into the Delaware, below Red Bank. It contained, in 1790, about 80 houses, a handsome brick court-house, a Quaker meeting-house, and an academy. Several of the houses are neat and handsome. It is nine miles *s.* of Philadelphia, and 11 *n. e.* of Swedesburg. Also, the name of a township of Pennsylvania, in Huntingdon County.]

[Woodbury, a township of Connecticut, in the county of Litchfield, in the United States; settled in 1672. It is situate near the river Shepoag, which enters the Stratford; 15 miles *n.* of Newtown, seven *n. e.* of New Milford, and eight *s. w.* of Litchfield.]

[WOODFORD, a county of Kentucky, on Ohio River, between Kentucky and Licking Rivers. Chief town, Versailles.]

[Woodford, a township of Vermont, *e.* of Bennington, adjoining. It contained, in 1790, 60 inhabitants.]

[WOODHOUSE, a township, in the county of Norfolk, in Upper Canada, lying *w.* of Walpole, and fronting Lake Erie.]

[WOODSTOCK, one of the principal towns of Windsor County, Vermont. It has a court-house and about 50 dwelling-houses. It lies *n. w.* of Windsor, adjoining, and contained, in 1790, 1,605 inhabitants. Waterquechie River passes through the centre of the town, on the banks of which stand the meeting-house and court-house.]

[Woodstock, a township of New York, in Ulster County; bounded *e.* by Kingston, Hurley, and Marbletown, and *w.* by Delaware River. It contained, in 1790, 1,025 inhabitants, including 15 slaves. In 1796, according to the State census, 160 of the inhabitants were qualified electors.]

[Woodstock, a small town of N. Carolina, on the *e.* side of Pamplico River.]

[Woodstock, a considerable and pleasant township of good land, in the *n. e.* corner of Connecticut, Windham County, divided into three parishes. This township, which is seven miles square, was granted by the general court of Massachusetts, November 7, 1683, and was settled by 39 families from Roxbury in 1688. This town remained under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts till about the year 1760, since which time it has been considered as belonging to Connecticut. It is 52 miles *s. w.* of Boston, 30 *e.* of Hartford, 24 *s. w.* of Worcester, 28 *n. w.* of Providence, and about the same distance *n.* of Norwich.]

[Woodstock, a post-town of Virginia, seat of justice and capital in Shenandoah County. It contains between 60 and 70 houses, a court-house, and gaol. The inhabitants are mostly Germans and their descendants. It is 12 miles from Strasburg, 35 from Rockingham court-house, and 70 *w.* from Washington.]

[WOODSTOWN, a post-town of New Jersey, Salem County, and contains about 40 or 50 houses. It is eight miles *n.* by *e.* of Salem, 17 *n.* by *w.* of Bridgetown, and 22 *s. s. w.* of Philadelphia.]

[WOODY Point, one of the limits of Hope Bay, on the *n. w.* coast of N. America, as Breakers is the other. It is in about lat. 50° *n.* and long. 128° *w.*]

[WOOLWICH, a township of Gloucester County, New Jersey.]

[Woolwich, a township of Lincoln County, district of Maine, on the *e.* side of Kennebeck River, *s.* of Pownalborough, containing, in 1790, 797 inhabitants.]

[WOONSOKET Falls, on Bluestone River, in Smithfield township, Rhode Island.]

[WORCESTER, a large and populous county of Massachusetts. It contained, in 1790, 50 townships, 53 congregational churches, 510,236 acres of unimproved land, and 207,430 under cultivation, and 56,807 inhabitants. It is about 50 miles in length, from *n.* to *s.* and about 40 in breadth; bounded *s.* almost equally by the States of Connecticut and Rhode Island, and *n.* by the State of New Hampshire. On the *e.* it is bounded chiefly by Middlesex County, and *w.* by Hampshire County.]

[Worcester, a post-town of Massachusetts, and capital of the above county. It is the largest inland town of New England; and is situate about 36 miles *w.* of Boston, and 40 *e.* of Springfield. The public buildings in this town are two congregational churches, a court-house, and a strong stone gaol. The inhabitants, who, in 1790, amounted to upwards of 2,000 in number, have a large inland trade, and manufacture pot and pearl ash, cotton and linen goods, besides some other articles. The compact part of the town contains about 150 neat houses, situate in a healthy vale, principally on one street. Printing, in its various branches, is carried on very extensively in this town, by Isaiah Thomas, Esq. who, in the year 1791, printed two editions of the Bible, the one the large royal quarto, the first of that kind published in America; the other a large folio, with 50 copper plates, besides several other books of consequence. His printing apparatus consists of 10 printing-presses, with types in proportion; and he has since been busied in printing of Bibles of various smaller kinds. His printing apparatus is reckoned the largest in America. This township, part of what was called Quinsigamond by the Indians, was incorporated in 1684; but being depopulated by Indian hostilities, the first town-meeting was held in 1722. It is proposed to open a canal between Provi-

dence, in Rhode Island, and this town. Lat. *n.* 42° 13′. long. *w.* 71° 44′.]

[WORCESTER, a township of Pennsylvania, in Montgomery County.]

[WORCESTER, the *s. e.* county of Maryland, having Somerset County and Chesapeake Bay on the *w.*, Sinepuxent Bay on the *e.*, which opens to the N. Atlantic Ocean, and Accomac County, in Virginia, on the *s.* It is well watered by Pocomoke, Assatigul, and St. Martin's River. It contained, in 1790, 11,640 inhabitants, including 3,836 slaves. Chief town, Snowhill.]

[WORCESTER, a township of Vermont, in the easternmost part of Chitrendon County, about 25 miles *e.* of Burlington.]

WORSAN, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the district of the parish of St. Thomas.

[WORTHINGTON, a post-town of Massachusetts, in Hampshire County, 11 miles *w.* by *n.* of Northampton, 19 *e.* by *s.* of New Lebanon, in New York State, and 85 *w.* of Boston. It was incorporated in 1768, and contained, in 1790, 1,116 inhabitants.]

WRENS, ISLAND, of the Straits of Magellan, between Sugar-loaf Mountain and the Harrington Island.

[WRENTHAM, the Wollomonuppouge of the Indians, a considerable township of Norfolk County, Massachusetts, on the post-road from Boston to Providence, 23 miles *s. s. w.* of Boston, and 16 *n. e.* of Providence, containing, in 1790, 1,767 inhabitants; formerly a part of Dedham, incorporated in 1661. There is a curious cavern in this town, called Wampom's Rock, from an Indian family of that name, who lived in it for a number of years. It is about nine feet square and eight feet high, lessening from the centre to about four feet. It is surrounded by broken rocks, and now serves as a shelter for cattle and sheep, as do several others here, formerly inhabited by Indians.]

[WRIGHTSBOROUGH, a small settlement or village on Little River, a branch of the Savannah, about 30 miles from Augusta. It was settled by Joseph Mattock, Esq. one of the Friends, who named it after Sir James Wright, then governor of Georgia, who promoted its establishment.]

[WRIGHTSTOWN, in Buck's County, Pennsylvania, four miles *n.* of Newtown, and four *w.* of Delaware River.]

[WUNALACHTIKOS, a tribe, the second in rank, of the Delaware nation.]

[WYACONDA, a river of Louisiana, which falls into the Missisippi, 34 miles below Riviere du Moins.]

[WYALUSING, a township of Pennsylvania, Luzerne County.]

[WYALUXING CREEK, in Luzerne County, Pennsylvania, falls into the *e.* branch of Susquehannah River, from the *n. e.* and *n. w.* of Meshoppen Creek, which is 25 miles *s. e.* of Tioga Point.]

[WYE RIVER, in Upper Canada, runs from a small lake near the *n. w.* end of Lake Simcoe, into Gloucester Bay, Lake Huron.]

[WYMOA ROAD, in the N. Pacific Ocean, a place of anchorage at Atooi Island, one of the Sandwich Islands, in lat. *n.* 21° 57′. and long. *w.* 159° 47′. It is at the *s. w.* side, and about six miles from the *w.* end of the island. The island is about 10 leagues long, and 25 leagues *n. w.* of Woahoo Island.]

[WYNTON, the chief town of Hertford County, Edenton district, N. Carolina.]

[WYOMING, a general name formerly given to a tract of country in Pennsylvania; situate on Susquehannah River, above Wilksbarre. In the year 1778, the settlement, which was known under this name, consisted of eight townships, each containing five miles square, settled from Connecticut, and originally under its jurisdiction, and produced great quantities of grain of all sorts, fruit, hemp, flax, &c.; inhabited by about 1000 families, who had furnished the continental army with near 1000 soldiers, besides various supplies of provisons, &c. In the month of July all these flourishing settlements were reduced by the Indians and Tories to a state of desolation and horror, almost beyond description. See WESTMORELAND. In the vicinity of Wyoming is a bed of coal, of the open burning kind, which gives a very intense heat. Wyoming Falls lie about two miles above Wilkesbarre, and eight miles and an half above Nantikoke Falls. Lat. *n.* 41° 14′. long. *w.* 75° 53′.]

[WYONDOTTS, or WIANDATS, an Indian nation residing near Fort Detroit, in the neighbourhood of the Ottawas and Putawatimes, whose hunting grounds are about Lake Erie. The number of warriors, 20 years ago, were, Wyondotts 250, Ottawas 400, Putawatimes 150. Another tribe of the Wyondotts live near Sandusky, among the Mohickons and Caghnawagas, who together have 300 warriors. At the treaty of Greenville, in consequence of lands ceded to the United States, the latter agreed to pay them a sum in hand, and in goods to the value of 1000 dollars a year for ever.]

[WYONOKE Creek, in N. Carolina, lies within or about lat. *n.* 36° 30. The charter of Carolina, in 1664, extended the bounds *e.* as far as the *n.* end of Currituck Inlet, upon a straight line *w.* to this creek.]

[WYTHE, a county of Virginia, said to be 120 miles in length, and nearly 50 in breadth; bounded *n.* by Kanhaway, and *s.* by the State of N. Carolina. Its population, in 1790, was included in Montgomery County. There are lead mines in this county, on the Great Kanhaway, 25 miles from the line of N. Carolina, which yield from 50 to 80 lbs., pure lead, from 100 lbs. washed ore, but most commonly 60 to 100. Two of them are worked by the public; the best of which is 100 yards under the hill; and although there are not more than 30 labourers generally employed, they might employ 50 or 60 to advantage. The labourers cultivate their own corn. Twenty, 25, and sometimes 60 tons of lead have been extracted from these mines in a year. Chief town, Evansham. The court-house is on the post-road from Richmond to Danville, in Kentucky. It is 30 miles from Montgomery court-house and 64 from Abingdon. A post-office is kept here.]

X.

XACALCO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Zochicoatlan in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, situate on the top of a mountain covered with trees; contains 22 Indian families, and is 12 leagues *n.* of its capital.

XACAPIXTLA, a principal or head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca in Nueva España. It contains 338 families of Spaniards, and 50 of Indians, including those who inhabit three other settlements of its jurisdiction. It has a convent of religious Augustins, in which is venerated a miraculous image of St. John the Baptist, painted on linen. The territory of this settlement is very fertile and delightful, and in it are gathered some cochineal, and many fruits. They also grow here many *magueyes*, of which they make pulque, and gather a very large harvest of maize. To enter the settlement you must pass over some very deep ravines, over which are so many bridges, worthy of the greatest admiration, and, indeed, but for want of gates, it would be as strong as any fortified place. Eight leagues *n.* of its capital.

XACOA, San Juan de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Pinoteca, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xicayán in Nueva España. It contains 57 families of Indians, employed in cultivating cochineal, tobacco, and some seeds, and is seven leagues *n. e.* of its head settlement.

XACOCIES, a barbarous nation of Indians, who dwell to the *n.* of the river Paraguay, in the territory immediately upon its shores, and bounded by the nations of the Xaqueses, Chaneses, and Xarayes.

XACONA, a principal or head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Zamora in Nueva España. It is of a mild and dry temperature, is half a league long from *e.* to *w.*, and a little less in width from *n.* to *s.*, including five wards, in which dwell 93 families of Spaniards, 20 of Mulattoes, and 191 of Indians, who occupy themselves in the cultivation of sugar canes, of which they make sugar and honey; in fishing, and in the cultivation of various fruits and medicinal herbs. At a leagues distance to the *s.* is another congregation, which they call De San Pedro, with 11 families of Spaniards, and five of *Mustees:* where there is a pool of water collected from the river for the use of many mills; and the place is also very fertile and abounding in vines. On the skirts of a mountain in the same rhumb are assembled some other seven Spanish families. The Spanish families inhabiting the head settlement of the district are 38, besides 34 of *Mustees*, and 16 of Mulattoes. At half a league's distance from this place some streams of crystalline water gush down from some clefts of a mountain, which, becoming united, form in the plain a large river which passes through the middle of the settlement, dividing the same into two parts. The shores of this river are covered with very shady and lofty trees, amongst which are ash, willows, sabines, *tarayes, zapotes, guayabos,* and others.

This river runs from *s.* to *n.* until it becomes incorporated with the Grande; and, passing through the settlement, it becomes divided into several small branches, which take their course down the different streets, and having several

bridges thrown across them for the convenience of passengers; whilst a regular supply of water is afforded to every garden and for all domestic purposes. Nor is there a want of irrigation in the neighbouring vallies; for in these there are most abundant crops of seeds of various kinds, and in their more cultivated parts a variety of most exquisite European and American fruits.

In the settlement is a very good convent of Augustins, and in the parish-church of the ward of San Pedro is venerated a miraculous image of Our Lady, with the title of La Raiz, which, according to tradition, was discovered in the lake or sea of Chapala, which is 12 leagues from this spot; and was found at the bottom of an Indian fisherman's net, who had caught not a single fish, whilst the nets of his companions were more than usually filled. Information of the event was immediately carried to the curate, who conveyed the image to the church, wherein it was deposited, until that a new temple was erected. This image is of so singular a construction, as to be formed naturally by the roots of a tree. The inhabitants of this settlement hold this image in the greatest devotion, through the repeated benefits supposed to be brought upon them through the influence of the Blessed Virgin.

XACONA, ANTIGUA, a small settlement of the same head settlement of the district as the former. It has scarcely any vestiges of what it was, and its population is extremely small. A little more than four leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

XACSAHUANA, a valley of the province and *corregimiento* of Abancay in Peru; fertile and abundant in wheat and cattle, and celebrated for the battle between the Licentiate Pedro de la Gasca, the governor of Peru, with the King's troops, on the one hand, and Gonzalo Pizarro on the other; when the latter was conquered and taken in 1548, the pacification of Peru brought about, and the insurgents of that kingdom punished.

XAGALASI, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Chixila, and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It contains 71 families of Indians, and is 13 leagues from its capital.

XAGUA, BAY OF, a settlement of the island of Cuba, on the *s.* coast, with one of the best and most capacious ports in the known world. It is five leagues in circumference, and sheltered from all the winds. At its entrance is a castle for its defence. The port is between the Port of Trinidad and the Island of Pinos.

XAGUEYES, ST. MIGUEL DE LOS, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Coautitlan in Nueva España; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Huchuetoca.

[XAINTES, SANTOS, or ALL SAINTS ISLANDS, so named from their being discovered on that holy day, by the Spaniards; on the *s.* side of the island of Guadaloupe, and in its jurisdiction. The most *w.* of these three isles is called Terre de Bas, or the Low Island, and the most *e.* Terre de Haut, or the High Island. The third, which lies exactly in the middle between the other two, is little other than a barren rock, and helps to form a very good harbour; in about lat. 15° 52′ *n.* and long. 61° 40′ *w.*]

XAJUEI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxamarca la Grande in Peru.

XALA, a district and *alcaldía mayor* of the province and bishopric of Nueva Galicia. The district of its jurisdiction is very limited, and although the territory is fertile and fit for cultivation, it produces nothing but maize, through the consummate indolence of the natives. It has five settlements; which are head settlements of the district. The capital, which is of the same name, about 10 or 15 miles from the coast of the S. Sea, is of a cold temperature, inhabited by 70 families of Mexican Indians, and has in it a convent of the religious of San Francisco. [It is 160 miles *s.* with a slight inclination to the *w.* from Guadalaxara, and 177 *w. s. w.* of Valladolid, in lat. 18° 33′ *n.* long. 103° 4′ *w.*]

The other settlements are,

Xomulco,	Zuatlan,
Aguacatlán,	Mezpa.
Ixtlán,	

XALAMELCO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Zochicoatlán in Nueva España; situate in a small plain at the foot of a lofty mountain. It is of a cold temperature, contains 22 Indian families, and is three leagues *w.* of its capital.

XALAPA, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España. It comprehends eight settlements, which are head settlements of the district, and are named Xalapa, (the capital)

Coatepec,	Santa Maria Tlapay-
Ixhuacán,	coya,
Xalacinco,	Noalingo, and
Atzala,	Acula.

Upon which are dependent the following:

Xochimalco,	Tlacolula,
Ixlahuacan,	San Juan Chapulte-
Ayahualco,	pec,
Teozelco,	San Joseph Pastepec,

San Pedro Tonayán,
San Pablo Coapan,
San Marcos,
Santa Maria Magdalena,
Santiago Coaucazintla,
Asuncion Xilotepec,
Chiloyaque,
San Andres Tlanehualoyan,
San Miguel del Soldado,
San Salvador,
San Pedro Tlatatila,
Atzalán,
Altotonca,
Santa Maria Tlapacoya,
San Joseph Miahuatlán,
S. Juan Miahuatlán,
S. Andres Acatlan,
San Antonio Tepetlan,
Chiconquaso,
Yecuatla,
Perote.

The capital is the town of the same name; situate on the side or extensive skirt of the mountain of Macuiltepec, sloping towards the *n.*, so that the town is at the distance of a cannon-shot from the mountain itself; also on the *e.* and *w.* side of the town is a deep ravine, from which a plain runs on a level with the *llanura*, which extends itself towards the *s.* The temperature is benign, and the territory chalky, and in some parts stony, though at a small distance from the surface is found a fine white sand, and from this, in all the parts of the district, gushes forth a pure salutary water, from whence arises the name of Xalapan, meaning, in the Indian idiom, place of sand and water; the Spaniards having suppressed the N for abbreviation. The natural elevation of this place towards the *s.* and that which is caused by the two ravines, exposes it to all the winds, save the *n.* which is kept off by the aforesaid mountain. This town was one of the first places conquered in this kingdom, and there are some public and early documents relative to that event preserved in a convent held by the religious of San Francisco, who were the first who preached in this kingdom. The said convent, which is of moderate size, was finished in 1555; the former, which had been built, having been destroyed, though some of the ruins are still to be seen.

The abundance of water derived from streams and fountains, although the latter be found low, causes the territory to be extremely delightful and fertile in all kinds of plants and vegetable productions; but the sloth of the natives will allow them to benefit but little by these advantages; and they gather only some maize, which, in common, does not exceed what is necessary for their consumption. Xalapa contains 243 families of Spaniards, 182 of *Mustees*, and 361 of Indians. [Its present population is estimated, by Humboldt, at 13,000 souls.]

Contiguous to the convent, of which we have spoken, is the chapel of the order Tercera, and there is also another, a convent of the religious of La Caridad, with an hospital, open to the sick from whatever quarter they come. In its vicinity, or at one league's distance to the *s. e.* is a devout sanctuary of Nuestra Señora del Chico, where there was formerly a sugar-mill of the same denomination, and which was thus called to distinguish it from another mill at a small distance called El Grande; and, although all the others are destroyed, this contributes towards the maintenance of the temple, to which flock a vast concourse of people, induced by their devotion to that image. Also, a league to the *s.* is the engine of Pacho, where there was formerly a very numerous and wealthy population, and where a great quantity of sugar was manufactured. But this engine, together with others, is, at the present day, deserted, nothing but two or three *rancherias*, or small farms, occupying the spot.

Whenever the *n.* winds blow at Vera Cruz, it infallibly rains at Xalapa, and this they there call the health of the place. This town is famous for being the theatre wherein is celebrated the fair in the time of the fleets, and where all the merchants of the kingdom meet to buy merchandise and arrange all their affairs; and it is almost incredible how it is, at this season, stocked with money and goods, both European and of the country. [See a more detailed account of this Fair, article VERA CRUZ, new matter, head *Commerce*.] It is here too that the famous purgative of its name (jalap) is found, the same being the root of a plant. Here, also, are many trees of liquid amber, which the Indians call *ocotzolt*, from which they extract amber, the leaves of the tree resembling those of the vine, and which, being rubbed betwixt the hands, give forth a very singular aromatic smell.

[Xalapa (Humboldt observes) resembles a fortress at a distance; for in the early periods of the conquest, convents and churches were constructed in such a manner as to serve for a defence in case of an insurrection of the natives. From this convent of St. Francis, at Xalapa, we enjoy a magnificent view of the colossal summits of the Coffre and the Pic d'Orizaba, of the declivity of the *cordillera* (towards L'Encero, Otateo, and Apazapa), of the river of l'Antigua, and even of the ocean. The thick forests of *styrax*, *piper*, *melastomata*, and ferns resembling trees, especially those which are on the road from Pacha and San Andres, the banks of the small lake De los Berrios, and the heights leading to the village of

Huastepec, offer the most delightful promenades. The sky of Xalapa, beautiful and serene in summer, from the month of December to the month of February wears a most melancholy aspect.—During the prevalence of the *n.* wind, the thermometer will descend to 12° or 16°, (63° and 60° of Fahrenheit,) and during this period *(estacion de los Nortes)* the sun and stars are frequently invisible for two or three weeks together. The richer merchants of Vera Cruz have country-houses at Xalapa, in which they enjoy a cool and agreeable retreat, while the coast is almost uninhabitable, from the mosquitos, the great heats, and the yellow fever. In this small town is an excellent school for drawing, founded within these few years, in which the children of poor artisans are instructed at the expense of people in better circumstances. The elevation of Xalapa above the level of the ocean is 1,320 metres, (or 4,264 feet). It is 127 miles *e.* with some inclination to *n. e.* of Mexico; and 52 miles *n. w.* of Vera Cruz, in lat. 19° 29′ *n.* long. 96° 54′ *w.*]

Xalapa, another settlement, with the addition of De la Sierra, to distinguish it from the former. It is of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Teutila, in the same kingdom; contains about 1,000 families of Indians, and is of a very hot temperature; on which account its natives sleep in hammocks. The church has only one nave, but very large, and in it is venerated the image of St. Anthony, to which peculiar devotion is offered. It produces some cotton, *vaynilla*, *cacao*, maize, and much fruit; is subject to continual tempests of thunder and lightning, as being close to the *sierra;* and is six leagues *s.* of its capital.

XALATLACO, Santa Maria de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and jurisdiction of the city of Antequera in Nueva España; situate so close to the same, as to be divided only by a river which runs between the two towns. It contains 40 families of Spaniards and *Mustees*, some Mulattoes, and 380 families of Indians. It is of a mild and dry temperature, but has a very sulphurious and nitrous air; so that the wheat crops yield but little, though the soil is at the same time fertile, and very abundant in maize and other seeds, as also in cochineal, in which consists its principal trade, from the number of *nopaleras* or *tunales* found here.

XALAZALA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in Nueva España. It contains 60 families of Indians, who are employed as day labourers in the *ranchos* of its district; and is two leagues *s. w.* of its capital.

XALAZINCO, a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España. It is of a cold and moist temperature, owing to the continual clouds drawn together by the surrounding mountains. Its boundary, although well supplied with water, consists of clayey soil upon sand, from whence its Indian name is derived; but these waters render the district very fertile and pleasant. The natives are little given to labour and agriculture, so that they do not reap the fruits which they might; for, as it is proved by experience, whenever they do cultivate the land, their crops are exceedingly large. The district contains three settlements, which are head settlements; and the population is composed of 140 families of Spaniards, 200 of *Mustees* and Mulattoes, and 600 of Indians.

XALCOMULCO, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Xalapa in Nueva España. It contains 162 families of Indians, who are employed in cultivating maize and fruits, as well as in catching fish, in the river which runs near to it and empties itself into the sea at Vera Cruz Vieja. Six leagues *s. e.* of its capital, and in this part, its jurisdiction terminates.

XALISCO, a province of the kingdom of Nueva Galicia, the most *s.* part of the audience of Guadalaxara. It is laved by the Pacific or S. Sea, by this, and by the *w.* rhumb; bounded *e.* by the province of Guadalaxara and Mechoacán, and is divided from that of Chiametlan by a small river, which runs into the sea. It is 50 leagues in extent, and is most abundant in wheat and in silver mines. It was conquered by Nuño de Guzman in 1531.—See article Nueva Galicia.

Xalisco, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tepic, of a cold temperature; contains 90 families of Indians, and a convent of religious of San Francisco. This being the first settlement established in the kingdom of Nueva Galicia, was the head settlement of the province, which is now called Guadalaxara. Two leagues *s.* of its capital.

XALMINULCO, Santa Ana de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xonacatepec, and *alcaldía mayor* of Guejozinco in Nueva España. It contains 103 families of Indians, and is situate *n.* of its capital.

XALOSTOC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xonacatepec, and *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca in Nueva España.

Xalostoc, S. Pedro de, another settlement,

in the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Ecatepec, of the same kingdom; containing 90 Indian families.

XALPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Amaqueca, and *alcaldía mayor* of Zayula in Nueva España. It contains 40 families of Indians, and in its district are various estates, producing in abundance wheat, maize, and French beans; there being also added to the other branches of its commerce those great quantities of wood which are cut upon the mountains. Ten leagues *w.* of its head settlement.

Xalpa, another settlement, in the head settlement of the district of Amatlan, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tanzitaro. It is of an hot temperature; contains 20 families of Spaniards and *Mustees*, and eight of Indians. It abounds in water, so that the plantations and gardens of its district are always well irrigated. Half a league *w.* of its head settlement.

Xalpa, another, with the dedicatory title of San Raymundo, in the head settlement of the district of Quilapa, and *alcaldía mayor* of Quatro Villas. It contains 116 families of Indians, addicted to the cultivation and trade of cochineal, seeds, fruits, digging of coal, and cutting of wood. Two leagues *w.* one quarter *s.* of its head settlement.

XALPANTEPEC, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guauchinango, in Nueva España. It contains 132 families of Totonacos Indians, including those of six wards of its district, and is 20 leagues *n.* of its capital.

XALPATLAHUACA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of San Luis de la Costa, and of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa, in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, and contains 82 families, of Mexican Indians: three leagues *s. e.* of its head settlement.

XALTEANGUIS, a settlement of the *alcadía mayor* of Antequera, in the province and bishopric of Oaxaca. It contains 20 families of Indians, employed in the cultivation of cochineal and seeds.

XALTENGO, S. Pedro de, a settlement of the *alcadía mayor* of Zumpango, in Nueva España. It is of a temperate climate, contains 180 families of Indians, five of Spaniards, and 12 of *Mustees*, who trade in the seeds which they cultivate; but their greater profit consists in the pulque, and for this they take the greatest care in the cultivation of the *magueyes:* one league *n.* of its capital.

XALTEPEC, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Nochiztlan. It contains 112 families of Indians, who are employed in the trade and cultivation of cochineal: is of a moderate temperature, and three leagues *s.* of its capital.

XALTEPETLAN, Santiago de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Guejozinco, in Nueva España. It contains 12 families of Indians.

XALTEPETONGO, a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Tepozcolula. It contains 39 families of Indians, who exercise themselves in the commerce and cultivation of cochineal.

XALTIPAC, S. Francisco de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Zenantitlan, and *alcaldía mayor* of Acayuca, in Nueva España. It contains 103 families of Indians, and is six leagues *e.* of its head settlement.

XALTOCAN, a settlement of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Valles, in Nueva España; situate in a glen at the foot of a mountain belonging to the jurisdiction of Mextitlán. It is of a benign temperature, annexed to the curacy of Huejutla, and contains 90 families, who cultivate seeds and some sugar-canes, from which they make loaf-sugar. Here are also many fine fowls, and other birds: 45 leagues from its capital.

Xaltocan, San Andres de, another settlement of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Zumpango; situate in the middle of a lake, which, in the wet season, must be passed in canoes, the water then completely surrounding the settlement. It contains 277 families of Indians, and five of *Mustees:* it was formerly the head settlement of the parish, but which was translated to Xaltengo, as well from the great moisture as from the fetid vapour, which, in the dry season, used to arise from the lake; but to this the natives were so familiarized that it did not induce them to quit the town. All the neighbouring parts of this settlement are nothing but swamps; so that the inhabitants are obliged to hire lands of other settlements wherein to sow their seeds: two leagues *s.* of its capital.

Xaltocan, another, of the *alcaldía mayor* of Coautitlán, in the same kingdom. It contains 282 families of Indians, and is two leagues *e. n. e.* of its capital.

Xaltocan, another head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tepic, of a hot temperature. It contains 60 families of Indians, and is 12 leagues *w.* of its capital.

Xaltocan, another, of the head settlement and *alcaldía mayor* of Compostela, in the king-

dom of Nueva Galicia: four leagues *n.* of its capital.

XAMAROS, a barbarous nation of Indians, but little known, who inhabit the mountains to the *w.* of the settlement of the Chiquitos in Peru. Its territory extends as far as the *llanuras*, on the shores of the river Apure or S. Miguel.

XAMILTEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tetelzinco and *alcaldía mayor* of Coautla, in Nueva España, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Ocuituco. It contains five families of Spaniards, six of *Mustees*, and 120 of Indians, including those of the two wards annexed to it, and which belong to the jurisdiction of the Marquisate del Valle.

Half a league off is a small mountain, on which is a temple of beautiful architecture, in which is venerated a miraculous image of the Virgin, of which the following miraculous discovery is related by D. Joseph de Villaseñor, in his Teatro Americano; namely, that some 130 years ago, an Indian woman, of an unblemished life, passing over the mountain saw a tree which was peculiarly large and shady, and perceiving the trunk of it to be open, she looked in, and there discovered in the cavity the said image; that, upon this, she immediately partook herself to the curate, who hastened to the spot, and found true what the Indian woman had related to him. The image is a quarter of a yard and four fingers long, and the face and hands are most beautiful, and it has also the peculiarity of having upon its forehead a mark made with some sharp instrument. In order to raise money, whereby to build a temple wherein to deposit the image, the curate intrusted it to a certain inhabitant of the settlement, named Geronimo, who was to demand alms, for the above purpose, at the Port of Vera Cruz. It so happened that the fleet arrived just at that time; and amongst the concourse of people was an European merchant, who, taking a great fancy to the image, offered for it 30 dollars. The price over tempted the person to whom it was intrusted, and he parted with it, thinking to make another resembling it, and to dress it in the same clothes, which he stripped off with that intention. But the deceit was discovered; for, by a miraculous interposition, the original image was found deposited in the temple long before the arrival of the fraudulent man with the counterfeit; and he, being stricken and confused at the circumstance, immediately confessed the whole of his dishonesty. The above account rests upon upon the juridical acts had and preserved in the settlement.

After the year 1712, in the great earthquake, which was experienced throughout the kingdom, in the month of August, the principal chapel of the temple opened, and the wall being in the act of falling, the image held out the rosary which it had in its right hand, and moved it towards the wall as though in the act to support it. Besides the above miraculous circumstances, others are daily taking place in this settlement; and it is not amongst the least of these, that although frequent attempts have been made to smooth over the scar on the forehead of the image, the varnish immediately falls off: seven leagues *n. e.* of its head settlement.

XAMILTPEC, another settlement, the capital of the *alcaldía mayor* of the coast of Xicayán. It is of a hot temperature, abounding in cochineal, cotton, wax, and *cacao*, in which its commerce consists. It contains 40 families of Spaniards, 50 of Mulattoes, and 703 of Indians.

XAMUNDI, an ancient and small province of the government of Popayán, in the *n. n. w.* part. It is a country rich in mines, of excellent gold, and was discovered by the captain and conqueror, Sebastian de Belalcazar, in 1536: it is now incorporated in the province of Chocó.

XAMUNDI, a river of the province and government of Antioquia, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the valley of Lile, and running from *s. w.* to *n. e.* enters the Cauca, just before the city of Cali.

XANAGUECHE, S. JUAN DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa, in Nueva España. It contains eight families of Indians, and is four leagues from its capital.

XANTETELCO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xonacatepec and *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca, in Nueva España. It contains a good convent of the religious of San Agustin.

XAPALLANGA, an ancient and small province of Peru, now comprehended in that of Xauxa. It was conquered by the Inca Huaina-Capac, XII. Emperor: its inhabitants are of the Guancos nation, and it is very fertile and populous.

XAPUQURIO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Puruandiro and *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid; 1½ league from the settlement of Numarán, to which it is annexed.

XAQUES, a small island of the Brasilian

sea, opposite the mouth of the river La Plata; thus called from the name of its discoverer Christóval Xaques, in lat. 35° 28′ *s.*

XAQUESES, a barbarous nation of Caribe Indians, inhabiting the woods of the river Paraguay; bounded *n.* by the nations of the Xarayes, Xacocies, and Chaneses. They live by fishing, and by the chase.

XAQUIAPA, a valley of the *alcaldía mayor* and jurisdiction of Valles, in Nueva España; situate in the middle of the *serranias* of Xilitla, and near the settlement of this name; where also, at the foot of a shady fig-grove, is a crystalline fountain, called de Aguiar, by an archbishop, who was of Mexico, Don Francisco de Aguian y Seixas. Here it is that the phenomenon takes place; that if a gun is fired off, an instrument played upon, or even a stone thrown, the waters alter their course; that is to say, flow more rapid, and inundate the place, owing to the effect produced upon the air.

XARAYES, a large and extensive *llanura*, nearly 300 miles long from *n.* to *s.* on both sides of the Paraguay, almost in the centre of S. America; which is, during the greater part of the year, inundated; though the latest accounts say, the inundation begins in January, and lasts three months. A great lake is there formed from the rivers flowing down from the mountains, and from the waters of the river Paraguay, which traverses the said *llanura*. At certain times of the year, however, the waters subside, and discover the greater part of the plain, and the river betakes itself to its own bed, although many lakes are still left of the size of from six to seven leagues in circumference. The land, upon the subsiding of the waters, is found covered with reeds and other plants, resembling arrows; and from thence, no doubt, the *llanura* was given the name of Xarayes by the Spaniards, the first discoverers. In the general inundation, the navigation is made by canoes and barks, and then the Portuguese of Cuyabá traverse it, passing directly along the river of this name to the Paraguay, the which they cannot do when the waters sink, but have to go a round about way of 200 leagues, in order to pass down the river of Los Porrudos to the Paraguay. In the middle of the lake are some islands, covered with some lofty trees, of various kinds, amongst which are found the *cassia* and the trees distilling gum-arabic. When the waters are at their height they overtop these trees by 12 yards: the number of crocodiles here are immense, also of water-swine, which they there call capivaras; and of fish, particularly the *palometas*, which the Father Gumilla calls boritos, and which are carnivorous. In the vicinity of this lake are many tigers, leopards, stags, monkies of various kinds, vipers, and other insects, the multitude of ants and mosquitoes being incredible.

The nearest settlements are Cuyabá, 60 leagues distant, belonging to the Portuguese, where there is a commandant general, owing to the rich gold and diamond mines which are worked there. Another settlement is Matagroso, more to the *s.* called also Villa-bella, and situate between the rivers Sereré to the *n.* and Baporé to the *s.*; the which rivers unite to form the Itenes.

The nation of the barbarous Guanas Indians dwell on the *s.* side of this lake of Los Xarayes, as do the nation of the Bayás; the former on the *e.* the latter on the *w.* side of the river Paraguay. The nation of the Bororos occupy the territory to the *e.* of the lake, and that of the Barbadoes the territory to the *n.* of the same. The nation of the Payaguas command the lake, the river Paraguay, and the other rivers which enter this. The mountains of San Fernando, which run from *s.* to *n.* for more than 40 leagues, and border on the *s. w.* of the lake; and those de Los Caballeros, which the Portuguese call Dos Cavaleyros, are to the *s.*, between the lake to the *n.* and the river of Los Porrudos to the *s.* The climate is very hot and moist, and consequently unhealthy.

XARCIA, San Juan de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa, in Nueva España. It contains 18 families of Indians, who carry on a great trade, the settlement being in the highway between the provinces of Chiapa, Tehuantepéc, and others, of the kingdom of Guatemala: four leages *e.* by *n.* of its head settlement.

XARIPO, a small settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xacona and *alcaldía mayor* of Zamora, in Nueva España. It contains 15 families of Indians, and is four leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

XAROCA, an ancient province of the kingdom of Quito: *s. s. e.* of the province of Jaen. It is full of woods, rivers, lakes, and swamps, and is consequently but little known: its climate is extremely hot.

XASI, a settlement of the jurisdiction and government of Maracaibo, in the Nuevo Reyno

de Granada. It is of a benign temperature, very healthy, fertile and pleasant, produces in abundance maize, *papas*, and other seeds, and contains 20 housekeepers and 40 Indians.

XAVARA, Bay of, on the *n.* coast of the island of Cuba, between the Bay of Baxanas, and the Point del Padre.

XAVIER, S. Strait of, a narrow pass of the river Paraguay, in the territory and government of the Chiquitos Indians.

[Xavier, S. a settlement of Indians, of the province and government of Buenos-Ayres; situate on the *w.* bank of the Paraná, about 76 miles *n. e.* of Santa Fé; in lat. 30° 32′ 15″. long. 60° 7′ 15″.]

[Xavier, S. another settlement of Indians, of the province and government of Buenos-Ayres; situate on a small river on the *n.* bank of Uruguay, a little to the *n. e.* of Martires: in lat. 27° 51′ 8″ *s.* long. 55° 14′ 4″ *w.*]

XAUXA, called also Jauja, a province and *corregimiento* of Peru, bounded *n.* and *n. e.* by the province of Tarma; *e.* by the mountain of the Indians; *s. e.* by the province of Huanta; *s.* by that of Angaraes; *s. w.* by that of Yauyos, and *w.* by that of Guarochiri: in length 12 leagues from *n.* to *s.* and in width 15 from *e.* to *w.*

This province is a ravine or valley of delightful temperature, although on the heights of either side of it a considerable degree of cold is experienced. In these heights are various estates of cattle, of the wool of which they make in the workshops clothes of the country. This province produces *papas* and other fruits, peculiar to the *serranía;* and, amongst the rest, a great quantity of wheat and barley; with which they fatten the herds of swine, which abound here. Nor are there wanting all sorts of vegetables, nor even some portion of sugar. Also, in the settlements which lie at the entrance of the mountain, are found cocoa trees, plantains, pine-apples, and other fruits. This province is watered by many streams; and through it passes an abundant river, which rises in the province of Tarma, out of the lake Chinchaycocha, and runs from *n. w.* to *s. e.*; and, taking its course to that of Huanta, enters that of Apurimac; but from being of little depth, it is of little advantage. At a league's distance from the bridge thrown over the said river, and which is called de Xauxa, or the stone bridge of Jajua, another bridge was built of only one arch, in the time of the Viceroy, the Marquis de Cañete.

In the reign of the Incas of Peru, Xauxa was one of the most populous districts, and proofs of this are evident through the numerous remains of towns and large castles, which are to be seen here. It is not without silver-mines, but few of these are worked. It has a college of the apostolical missionaries of the order of San Francisco, with the title of Santa Rosa de Ocopa, whose business is to convert the infidel Indians of the mountains; but those who were already converted made an insurrection in 1742, committing great hostilities in the province of Tarma, and other parts.

[The district of Xauxa contains 14 doctrinal curacies; and one town, with 16 settlements annexed; the whole inhabited by 52,286 souls; viz. 32 clergy, 84 Monks, 1,713 Spaniards, 28,477 Indians, 21,922 *Mustees*, and 58 slaves. The annual value of its productions is 137,642 dollars. The military force, which was created in 1768, consists of a battalion of nine companies each, with a total force of 93 inrolled. (Guia del Peru, 1797).]

The capital is the settlement of the same name. It has manufactories of woollen stuffs, and some silver mines; is of a benign temperature, and near to it on the *s.* side passes a river of the same name. The other settlements are the following:

Ricran,	Comas,
Mojon,	Andamarca,
Matahuasi,	Pariahuanca,
Cincos,	Acobamba,
San Antonio de Huancani,	Muquiyauyo,
Concepcion,	Huancayo,
Sicaya,	Pucará,
Cochangara,	Huayocachi,
Huaripampa,	Caxas,
Apata,	Chongos,
Huamal,	Carhuacallanga,
Uchubamba,	Colca,
San Gregorio,	Chupaca,
Quinchuay,	Ortocuña,
Hualhuas,	Mitoto.

Xauxa, a large and abundant river of the above province, also called Jauja, which rises in the province of Tarma, out of the lake Chinchaicocha, which the Indians call Angoyacu; runs *s. e.* watering the province, together with the great *llanura* of its name, passes to the province of Huanta, dividing the same from Angaraes, and in that makes its way into the woods of the infidel Indians; collecting the waters of many other rivers to enter the Ucayale. It has a

beautiful stone-bridge, which was built by order of the Viceroy of Peru, the Marquis de Cañete, to facilitate the pass into the province of Angaraes. This bridge is one of the best in Peru, and is called the bridge of Iscuchaca, [and is about 66 miles *s.* of Tarma.]

XAXO, a settlement of the province and government of Maracaibo, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate in a *llanura*, between the cities of Mérida and Truxillo.

XEQUETEPEQUE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Saña in Peru; situate a quarter of a league from the river of its name. It is in the direct road from Valles to Lima.

XEREZ, an *alcaldía mayor* and jurisdiction of the kingdom of Nueva Galicia; bounded *n. n. w.* by Nueva Vizcaya, and *w.* by the province of Nayarith. It is very fertile in seeds and fruits, and particularly in cattle, this being its principal branch of commerce, and it having many folds and grazing lands; the principal of which are those of El Tesoro and of Los Organos. It consists of only the following settlements:

Monte Escobedo, Susticatan, Valparaiso, Villaguitierrez del Aguila.

Xerez, the capital is the town of the same name; small, but one that had carried on a great commerce when first settled by the Spaniards, although its population is now almost entirely of people of colour: [47 leagues *n.* of Guadalaxara; in lat. 22° 40′ *n.*]

Xerez, a city of this name, with the addition of La Frontera; the capital of the province of Choluteca, on the confines of Guatemala and Nicaragua, and 80 leagues from the city of Santiago.

Xerez, another, of the province and government of Venezuela, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, of the district and jurisdiction of Caracas; situate *s.* of Nueva Valencia; from whence it is 15 leagues, 20 from Nueva Segovia, and 60 from the city of Coro, to the *n.* of the mountains of San Pedro. It has fallen into much decay, so as to be now reduced to a miserable village.

Xerez, another, of the province and government of Paraguay; situate in a spacious *llanura* on the shore of the river Mondego or Mbetotey, [on the *s.* side, about 45 miles before this river enters the Paraguay.] It was destroyed by the infidel Indians in the last (16th) century, and its ruins may be yet seen, being the only ones remaining: in lat. 19° 30′ 3″ *s.*

XEVEROS, a barbarous nation of Indians, who dwell in the woods bordering upon the river Marañon. They were reduced to a religious and civilized life, and into settlements, by Father Lucas de la Cueva, a missionary of the Jesuits in the province of Quito, in 1638. The settlement of this *reduccion* was most numerous in 1767. [It is situate on the *s.* part of the river of its name, 36 miles *w. s. w.* of the settlement of La Laguna, belonging to the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province of Mainas: in lat. 5° 30′. *s.*]

XEXUI, a river of the province and government of Paraguay; which runs from *w.* to *e.* and enters the Paraguay above the city of La Asuncion.

XEXUI-GUAZU, a river of the same province and government as the former; which runs to the same rhumb, and has the same course.

XEXUI-MINI, a small river of the same province and government as the former. It runs *s. s. w.* and enters the Xexuy.

XIBAROS, a barbarous nation of Indians of the kingdom of Quito, who live in the woods to the *s.* of the province of Macas, and *e. s. e.* of that of Cuenca. These barbarians made an insurrection since their civilization and conversion to the Catholic religion, and destroyed the city of Logroño; retiring into the woods with the Spanish women, whom they took with them from that ill-fated settlement. Historians disagree in the epoch of this rebellion. The ex-jesuit Coleti asserts, that it was in the middle of the 16th century; but it appears that in the year 1632, the Father Francisco Fuentes, procurator general of Quito in this court, informed the King, that, in the year preceding, two missionaries of the Jesuits had entered to preach to the Xibaros Indians. From all that has been written on this subject, it may be inferred that the Xibaros are most numerous, and that they still preserve some vestiges of the Catholic religion, which their ancestors regularly professed. These Indians are robust, warlike and intrepid, and in their territory are many gold mines.

Xibaros, a settlement of this name in the province and government of Guayaquil and kingdom of Quito.

Xibaros, another, in the province and government of Mainas, of the same kingdom. See Concepcion.

XICALAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Uruapán and *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of

Mechoacán. It contains 19 families of Indians, and is a league *s.* of its head settlement.

XACALANGO, a river of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Tabasco. It runs *n.* and enters the sea in the Gulf of Mexico, to the *e.* of that of Tabasco.

XICALTEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Pinotepa del Rey, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xicayán in Nueva España. It contains 38 families of Indians, who occupy themselves in the cultivation of cochineal and cotton: eight leagues *e.* of its head settlement.

ZICAMARCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huarochiri, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of Santa Olaya.

XICAPOTLA, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tula, in Nueva España; annexed to the curacy of its capital, being distant from this one league to the *e.* It contains 197 families of Indians.

XICARILLA, a settlement of the missions which are held by the religious of S. Francis, in the kingdom of Nuevo Mexico.

XICAYAN, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, in the province and bishopric of Oaxaca; situate on the coast of the S. Sea. It is very fertile in cochineal, cotton, wax, *cacao*, and salt, in which it carries on a great and lucrative commerce; and being, in consequence, a jurisdiction of the first class in that kingdom. The capital is the settlement of Xamiltepéc, and the others are,

Huazolotitlan,	Tulixtlaocan,
Huazcaltepec,	Amuzgos,
Miloacán,	Cacahuatepéc,
Tutepéc,	Icapaca,
Tetepelzin,	Zultepec,
Pinotepa,	Zacatepec,
S. Juan Xacoa,	S. Juan de Grotes,
S. Pedro Siniyú,	Santiago Coahuitlán,
Sta. Maria Nutio,	Tututepec,
S. Christóval,	Jocotepéc,
Santa Maria,	Acatepec,
S. Lorenzo,	Santa Cruz,
S. Agustin,	Tlaltepec,
Pinotepa del Rey,	Tepestlahuaca,
Xicaltepec,	Olintepec,
Poputla,	Juquila,
Tlacama,	Xolotepec,
Atoyaque,	San Luis,
San Juan,	Ixcantepec,
Santiago,	Amiltepec,
Xicayán,	Lazao,
Petatlapa,	Palanizuela,
San Joseph,	Ixtapa,
Ixcapa,	Xuchatengo.

XICAYAN, another settlement in this jurisdiction, of the head settlement of the district of Atoyaque. It was formerly the capital; but this was afterwards removed to Xamiltepec. It contains 54 families of Indians, who occupy themselves in the cultivation and commerce of cochineal, tobacco, seeds, and cotton: 7 leagues *w.* by *n.* of its capital.

XICO, a small island, situate in the middle of the lake of Chalco in Nueva España.

XICOTLAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Chiautla in Nueva España. It contains 230 families of Indians, and 30 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, who maintain themselves by trading in salt, which is found in its district, and which they carry to La Puebla de los Angeles.

XICULA, SAN JUAN DE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa. It contains 136 families of Indians, whose commerce consists in cotton, cochineal, fruit and seeds. It has a convent of religious of San Domingo, and is five leagues *n.* of its capital.

XIHUITLIPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xocotla, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in Nueva España. It contains 42 families of Indians, who carry on a trade in cochineal, maize, and French beans. Two leagues *n.* of its head settlement.

XILITLA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tamazunchale, and *alcaldía mayor* of Valles in Nueva España; situate on the most lofty part of an elevated *sierra*. In it live united many Mexican, Pames, Othomies, and Mecos Indians, nearly all of them Gentiles, acknowledging, at least, no other sacrament than baptism and matrimony. Thirty-two leagues from its principal head settlement, and being divided from the same by some inaccessible roads, full of ravines and rough *serranias*.

XILOTEPEC, a district of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, composed of four head settlements of the district, and of many other small settlements or wards, which are:—

Chiapantongo,	Chiapa de Mota,
Zanayaquilpa,	Alfaxayuca.
S. Miguel Cambay,	

XILOTEPEC, the capital, is the settlement of its name, of a mild temperature, abounding in maize, seeds, fruits, and large and small cattle, in which the natives trade. These amounted to 3,750 families of Othomies Indians, and 60 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes. Twenty leagues *n.* of Mexico, one quarter *n. e.*

XILOTEPEC, another settlement, in the head settlement of the district of Tlacololula, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xalapa; situate in a hollow formed by various mountains, which surround it. It is of a very stony territory, abounding with chalk, on which account it is the only part where there are lime-kilns, and with that article it supplies the whole of the province and its dependencies. It contains 15 families of Spaniards, and 162 of Indians, and is two leagues *s. w.* of its head settlement.

XILOTEPEC, another, of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa, in the same kingdom. It contains 14 families of Indians.

XILOTEPEC, another, with the dedicatory title of Santiago, in the *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa; situate in a plain which is surrounded by lofty mountains. In it they reckon 120 families of Indians, including those of the wards of its district, and here they procure cochineal finer than any in the province.

XILOTLAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Colima. It contains 80 families of Indians employed in agriculture, and who gather abundant crops of maize and French beans. In its vicinity are some farms for breeding large cattle, in which there are employed 10 families of Spaniards and Mulattoes. Forty leagues *e.* of its capital.

XILOTZINCO, SANTA ANA DE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Matepec, in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 290 families of Indians.

XILOVASCO, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of San Salvador in the kingdom of Guatemala.

XIMBE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Andahuailas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Moro in the province of Santa.

XIMBURA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Loxa in the kingdom of Quito; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Cariamanga; situate in a retired and craggy mountain. Hither the coadjutor to the curate repairs once a year to perform the ecclesiastical functions and the duties of the parish. The natives of the settlement appear by their beard, colour, carriage, and language, to be a degenerated race of Spaniards, although they are more uncouth and barbarous than any Indians. They are thought, indeed, and with some truth, to be descended from Spanish families, which might have separated from those 90 families, which, in 1539, were sent from Quito, by Gonzalo Pizarro, under Captain Salinas, for the foundation of some new settlements in the province of Pacamores, which is bounded by the province of Zarza. These Indians excite, by their appearance, at once laughter and compassion, and it cannot but be wondered at that they can reconcile themselves to live in the wretched state to which they are addicted. Sometimes they are accustomed to trade with the other settlements in the productions of their own territory; these being most delicate salted meats, and cheeses of a superior quality to any known in the kingdom. Their ignorance is such, that it is impossible to learn any thing from them; and they have no tradition of their origin.

XIMENEZ, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán, belonging to the jurisdiction of the city of Santiago del Estero; situate nearly *w.* of the same.

XINGU, an abundant river of the province and *captainship* of Pará in the kingdom of Brazil. It rises in the mountains of the *serranía*, runs continually *n.* through the territory of the Topayos Indians, in which extended course of many leagues it collects the waters of other rivers, and especially of the Guiriri, by the *w.* part, and giving five large falls, enters, with an amazing body, into the river Marañon, or Amazonas, [about 70 miles above the island of Joanes, in lat. 1° 34′ *s.*]

XINGU, a settlement of the Portuguese in this province and *captainship*, on the shore and at the mouth of the former river, from whence it takes its name.

XIPACOYA, a settlement and head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tepozcolula in Nueva España. It contains 55 families of Indians, who occupy themselves in the cultivation and trade of cochineal.

XIPAN, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Guamalies in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chavin de Pariarca.

XIPICAPA, a settlement of the province and government of Guayaquil in the kingdom of Quito, and of the district of Puerto Viego, from which it lies to the *s.*, upon the shore of the river of its name, and the which forms the Bay of Machala. [The settlement is two short leagues from the S. Sea, in lat. 1° 23′ *s.*]

XIQUILPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tuzcacuezco, and *alcaldía mayor* of Amola, or Amula, in Nueva España. It contains 46 families, employed in cultivating seeds and breeding cattle. Eleven leagues *n.* of its capital.

XIQUILPAN, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía*

mayor of Nueva España, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It produces much large cattle, and loaf-sugar, which is manufactured in the mills of its district, the same being the branches of its commerce. It also carries on a trade with the town of Colima in bartering salt and other articles. The *alcaldía mayor* of Tinguindin is accustomed to be united to this, although far distant, not however, but that a separate *alcalde* has frequently been appointed by way of safety. Its jurisdiction consists of the following settlements.—

Charapa,	Patamba,
San Angel,	Ocumucho,
Tarequato,	San Joseph.

XIQUILPAN, the capital, is of the same name. In it live 158 families of Indians, and 186 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and it has a convent of the religious of San Francisco. Eight leagues *e.* of its capital.

XIQUIPILCO, S. JUAN DE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Metepéc in Nueva España. It contains 186 families of Indians.

XITALHA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Zedales in the kingdom of Guatemala.

XITIPOS, SANTIAGO DE, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits of the province and government of Mainas of the kingdom of Quito; founded by the Father Lorenzo Lucero in 1670, on the shore of a lake which is formed from the waters of the Marañon.

XITOLTEPEC, a settlement of the province and *alcaldia mayor* of Zoques in the kingdom of Guatemala.

XIVIA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huamalies in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Jesus.

XIUTOPANTLA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Atengo, and *alcaldía mayor* of Chilapa in Nueva España. Two leagues *w.* of its head settlement.

XOCHIHUEHUETLAN, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in Nueva España. It is of an extremely hot temperature, contains 112 families of Indians; and in its district is a mineral of exquisite copper, this being the only article and branch of trade.

XOCHIMALCO, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Xalapa, in the same kingdom as the former. It is very fertile and pleasant. Its population is composed of 343 families of Indians, seven of Spaniards, 44 of *Mustees* and Mulattoes; but it produces nothing but maize, of which they make biscuit for the food of the muleteers. In its vicinity is a *rancheria*, or small farm, called Cenquantla, annexed to its curacy, and in which reside many families dedicated to the cultivation of tobacco and seeds. It has also two sugar manufactories, but which are now converted into places for storing cattle. Besides these there are the farms of Estanzuela and Tazampa. Two leagues *s. w.* of the settlement of Choatepec.

XOCHIMILCO, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España; bounded *e.* by that of Chalco, *w.* by that of Cuyoacán, and *n.* by the lake of Mexico. It is very fertile and pleasant, and of great trade, through its vicinity to the capital of the kingdom, whither they convey by the lake in canoes necessary fruits and other articles; also transmitting by land the same to the neighbouring jurisdictions. Its population consists of the settlements which are head settlements of the district, (and of different wards or small settlements), Amilpa and San Pedro Acotopam.

XOCHIMILCO, the capital, is the settlement of the same name, founded by the Chichimecos Indians, before the Mexican empire, on the shore of the lake. It was extremely opulent in those times, as appears from its numerous population: since, including the inhabitants of its wards, the same amounted to 2,500 families of Mexican Indians, and has now many families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes. What has greatly tended to the preservation of the splendour and population of this capital for so many years is, that almost all the inhabitants have some peculiar employment. Some of them, and indeed the greater part, are carpenters; making doors, windows, beds, benches, chairs, tables, and other pieces of furniture of great beauty, the which they carry in canoes by the lake to one of the markets of Mexico, where they make a great profit of them. Others are blacksmiths, and make locks, staples, nails, &c. and others apply themselves to the manufacture of wooden-lattices and nets for the windows of houses: also those who inhabit the lake, in some islands which they call Chinampas, are engaged in cultivating flowers and in making common mats, called *petates*, from an herb found in the lake resembling a rush, and called in the Mexican language *tule*, and which they hang at the doors of the temples and houses, in testimony of their joy, and before their pulque-houses and taverns. Here are also some estates and *ranchos*, in which are cultivated wheat, maize, and other seeds, and a very good convent of Franciscans. [Ten miles

s. s. e. of Mexico, in lat. 19° 16′ *n.* long. 99° 2′ 30″ *w.*]

XOCHINACATLAN, a small settlement or ward of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guauchinango in Nueva España; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Tlaola.

XOCHITEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Huitepec, and *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 35 families of Indians, and 16 of Spaniards and *Mustees*, with a good convent of Franciscans. Its territory, and that of the wards annexed to it, are dry and barren; for, although it be surrounded by various rivers, their waters cannot be made use of as being very muddy. Three leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

XOCHITLAN, S. Augustin de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xacapistla, and of the same *alcaldía mayor* as the former.

XOCA, a small river of the province and government of Merida, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the celebrated valley of Cucata, runs *s.e.* and enters the Apure.

XOCOTA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Truxillo in Peru.

XOCOTEAPA, S. Pedro de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Acayuca in Nueva España. It is of an hot temperature, situate on the skirt of the *sierra* of San Martin, contains 350 families of Indians, produces plenty of maize, French beans, fruits, and thread of *pita*, which is the principal branch of its commerce; and is eight leagues *s.* of its capital.

XOCOTENANGO, a settlement of the province and kingdom of Guatemala.

XOCOTEPEC, a settlement of the *alcadía mayor* of Guauchinango, in Nueva España. It contains 212 families of Totonacos Indians; including those dwelling in the six wards of its district, and is three leagues *s.* of its capital.

XOLAPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Olintla, and *alcaldía mayor* of Zacatlan, in the same kingdom; three leagues and a half from its head settlement.

XOLALPAN, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Teotalco, in the same kingdom. It contains 270 families of Indians.

Xolalpan, another settlement, with the dedicatory title of Santa Maria, in the same kingdom, and of the *alcaldía mayor* of Ecatepec, annexed to the curacy of its capital; from whence it is one league to *n. n. e.* It contains 85 families of Indians.

XOLOTEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Juquila, and *alcadía mayor* of Xicayán in the same kingdom. It contains 18 Indian families, and is 28 leagues *e.* by *n.* of its capital.

XOLOTLA, a small settlement or ward of the *alcadía mayor* of Guauchinango in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Naupán.

XOLOTLAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcadía mayor* of Motines, in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 24 families of Indians.

XOMULCO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcadía mayor* of Xala in the same kingdom. It is of a mild temperature, and contains 20 families of Indians.

XONACAPA, S. Miguel de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district, and *alcadía mayor* of Ixmiquilpan in the same kingdom; nine leagues *n. e.* of its capital.

XONACATEPEC, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca in the same kingdom; its jurisdiction is composed of 14 settlements, so close to each other that they are all registered as one population. In these dwell 813 families of Mexican Indians, and 87 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, who exercise themselves in the cultivation of some seeds and fruits, as well European as those peculiar to the country; its situation is upon a plain, equally barren and scarce of water. It has a convent of Augustins, and is 14 leagues *e.* of its capital.

XONACATLAN, Santiago de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of San Juan de los Llanos in the same kingdom. It contains 540 families of Indians, including those of the wards of its district, and is nine leagues *n. w.* of its capital.

Xonacatlan, San Francisco de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Metepeque in the same kingdom. It contains 313 families of Indians.

Another, of the head settlement of the district of Amaqueca, and *alcaldía mayor* of Zayula in the same kingdom. It contains 15 families of Indians, who occupy themselves in cultivating seeds and fruits and cutting wood; it is situate in the *serranía*, and is two leagues from its head settlement.

Another, of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom. It contains 15 families of Indians.

XONGOPAUI, a settlement of the missions, which are held by the religions of San Francisco,

in the province of Moqui, and of the kingdom of Nuevo México.

XONOTAL, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tetela Xonotla in the same kingdom. Its jurisdiction comprehends five settlements, in the which dwell 476 families of Totonaques Indians. It is of a good, fertile, and pleasant temperature, and is irrigated by a river, which, after running through a narrow glen for some distance, unites itself with another, and thus passes through many provinces until it empties itself into the sea. Its commerce consists of woods, cut on the mountains, and of making charcoal; 18 leagues *n. e.* of its capital.

[XORILLO, a llanura of the intendancy of Valladolid, of which a further account may be seen under that article.]

[XORILLO, a large volcano of the intendancy of Valladolid in Nuevo Mexico, which sprung up by an earthquake, from a chasm to 1640 feet above the level of the plains. See VALLADOLID, Intendancy of.]

XOSAA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in the same kingdom. It contains 63 families of Indians, and is 16 leagues from its capital.

XOXOCOTLAN, SANTA CRUZ DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Cuilapa, and *alcaldía mayor* of Quatro Villas in the same kingdom. It is of a mild and dry temperature, contains 194 families of Indians and some of Spaniards, given to the cultivation of seeds, fruits, and cochineal, and to making coal and cutting wood. It abounds in melons and water melons much esteemed, and is half a league *s.* of its head settlement.

XOXUTLA, SAN MIGUEL DE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* and jurisdiction of Cuernavaca in the same kingdom. It contains 316 families of Indians, including those of 10 other settlements of its district. In its church is venerated an image of Christ crucified, which was found by the Indians at the root of a thorn, which was plucked up; eight leagues *s.* of its capital.

XUALTEGUI, BAY OF, on the *n.* coast of the strait of Magellan, on the side of Port Angosto, or Narrow, and opposite the point of San Ildefonso.

XUCURAY, a river of the province and government of Mainas, in the kingdom of Quito. It rises in a lake which is in the country or territory of the Mainas Indians; runs nearly from *s.* to *n.* and enters the Marañon.

XUCHALTENGO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Juquila, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xicayán in Nueva España. It contains 60 families of Indians, 20 of *Mustees* and Mulattoes, who occupy themselves in the cultivation and trade of cochineal, tobacco, and cotton, and is 35 leagues *n.* of its capital.

XUCHIAPAS, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tenango in the same kingdom. It contains 96 families of Indians.

XUCHICALCO, a small settlement or ward of the head settlement of the district, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tetela de Volcán in the same kingdom; a quarter of a league from its capital.

XUCHIMILCO, SANTA TOMAS DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the town of the marquisate, and *alcaldía mayor* of Quatro Villas, in the same kingdom. It contains 59 families, who occupy themselves in cultivating cochineal, wheat, maize, pulse, and fruit, in cutting wood and making charcoal, in all of which they trade; half a league *e.*, quarter *s. e.* of its capital.

XUCHITEPEC, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guajuapa in the same kingdom. It contains 50 families of Indians.

Another settlement, in the same *alcaldía mayor* as the former. It contains 85 families of Indians.

Another, with the dedicatory title of Santa Maria, in the *alcaldía mayor* of Huamelula; in the centre of a valley, fertilized by various streams, and which run through the streets of the settlement: by these waters the cultivated farms of the district are irrigated. It is 14 leagues from the sea, contains 30 families of Indians, who trade in cochineal, cotton, seeds, and fruits, and is five leagues from the settlement of Pochutla.

XUCHITLAN, S. BARTOLOME DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Ixtác, and *alcaldía mayor* of S. Juan de los Llanos in the same kingdom. Inhabited by 190 families of Indians. Amongst the many estates in its jurisdiction is found one which was formerly the Real of silver mines, called Santiago de Temextla, and which is now reduced to a copper foundery, this metal being sometimes found mixed with the silver; 10 leagues *n. w.* of its head settlement.

XULUAPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Almololoyan, and *alcaldía* mayor of Colima in the same kingdom; founded on the top of an elevated mountain. It is of a hot temperature; contains 48 families of Indians,

occupied in manufacturing mats, cutting wood, and making charcoal for the consumption of the capital; six leagues *w.* of its head settlement.

XUNGAPEO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tuxpán and *alcaldía mayor* of Maravatio in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It is of an hot temperature, abounding in sugar canes of various kinds, of which the inhabitants manufacture much sugar and honey; these consist of 37 families of Spaniards and *Mustees*, and 223 of Indians. Four leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

XURULLO, Jorullo, or Juruyo, a volcano of the province of Mechoacan, and intendency of Valladolid, in Nueva España; formed on St. Michael's day in the year 1759, in the middle of a beautiful, fertile, and pleasant valley, which extends three leagues from *e.* to *w.* and more than eight from *n.* to *s.* The Indians gave it this name, which, in their idiom, signifies paradise.

In this valley once stood a very rich estate, belonging to Don Joseph Pimentel, in which they manufactured a great quantity of sugar of the best quality of any in the kingdom, and not far off were two settlements, called La Presentacion and Aguacana; but which, on the eruption of the volcano, were not only entirely destroyed, but exhibit the most deplorable prospect, being nothing but heaps of ashes, with half burnt trunks of trees, and the whole ground being full of great chasms; and, moreover, a complete mountain being in the place where before all was level ground.

By the skirt of this mountain passes a stream which, before, fertilized the valley, and which they now call del Salto, since its waters are so hot that men or horses passing through it, are in danger of being scalded, it being necessary to cross this river in going to the copper mines, which are worked here on account of government. Six months before this catastrophe took place, dreadful subterranean noises were continually heard, also earthquakes, which so alarmed the people that they had all immediately left the territory, but for the persuasions of Father Ignacius Molina, a Jesuit, who was solicited to use his influence here, through the aforesaid lord of the estate. As, upon the first perception of the earthquakes here, the eruption of the volcano of Colima ceased, it is thought, notwithstanding that the latter place is at the distance of more than 70 leagues from hence, that the matter, entombed in the earth, found a communication through the whole distance till it burst out in this valley.

[Xurullo, or, as it is found in the English maps, Jorullo, is 30 miles *s.* from the city of Pasquaro, and 55 *s. w.* by *s.* from the city of Valladolid, in lat. 19° 2′ *n.* and long. 101° 30′ *w.*]

XUXIUCAPA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Zedales in the kingdom of Guatemala.

XUXUPANGO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Amatlán and *alcaldía mayor* of Zacatlán in Nueva España. Three leagues from its head settlement.

XUXUI, or Jujuy, S. Salvador de, a city of the province and government of Tucumán in Perú, founded, in 1580, at the mouth of a ravine of more than 30 leagues long. But the Omohuacas Indians, who had some years previously embraced the Catholic religion, rebelled, and, by repeated attacks, twice destroyed it; although it was as many times rebuilt by its governors to serve as an outwork, and lastly, by Don Francisco Argañaraz y Murguia, by order of the governor D. Juan Ramirez de Velasco, in the spot where it was first founded, which is in an extensive and delightful llanura. It is of a hot temperature, has a parish with five chapels in the vicinities of the city, and in the city itself is another chapel with the dedicatory title of S. Roque, the which of itself served as a parish until 1766, when the city was built; it has a convent of the religious of San Francisco, another of la Merced, and a house of residence for the Jesuits. Whenever European merchandise was permitted to enter Peru, from Buenos Ayres, it was taken in carts as far as this city, and from hence on the backs of mules, and this porterage was a source of great emolument to the inhabitants; but, as this transfer of goods has much decreased, it follows also that the population and wealth of the city has declined, the sole trade of the inhabitants being that of some seeds, cows, horses, mules, and of a small portion of wood. The following curacies belong to its district:

Humahuaca, Cochinoca, Santa Catalina.

The first has seven chapels; the second an hermitage of Santa Barbara, which is a chapel of ease, also two other hermitages in the settlement of Casivindo, which are those of la Rinconada, and the Rio San Juan; [61 miles *n. n. e.* from the city of Salta, and 275 *n.* from Santiago del Estero, in lat. 23° 19′ *s.*]

Xuxui, a river of this province and government, which rises to the *s. w.*, and near the settle-

ment of Casivindo, runs *e.* and turning its course to *s. e.* incorporates itself with the Siancas to enter the Bermejo, or Vermejo. It is also called de S. Salvador or Rio Grande and Rio Dulce. On its shores are many estates of cattle, which are frequently attacked and destroyed by the Abipones and Guaicurus Indians.

XUZISTLAHUACA, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guajuapa in Nueva España. It contains 108 families of Indians.

Y.

YABAA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, contains 90 families of Indians, and is two leagues *s.* of its capital.

[YABAQUE, or INAQUE, two of the Lucayas, or Bahama Islands, called great and little Inaque, situate about 77 miles *s. e.* of Crooked Islands, in about lat. 21° 10′ *n.* and long. 73° 20′ *w.*]

YABARI, YAVARI, YAHUARI, [called also JAVARY], a large and abundant river of the kingdom of Peru, which rises in the mountains of the Conomamas to the *e.* of the river Paro, or Ucayalie, runs many leagues nearly to the *n.* through the territory of the Plateros Indians, in the province of the Amazonas, and then turns its course to the *n. e.* through the province of the Paguanas Indians, [and enters the Marañon, or Amazonas, opposite and close to the town of Tabatinga.] The Portuguese have this river as a divisional line between their dominions and those of the crown of Spain; and near its mouth they have built a fort, with the name of San Pedro de Yahuari. [In lat. 4° 7′ *s.*]

YABAZA, a river of the province and government of Darien and kingdom of Tierra Firme; which rises in the mountains in the interior of the province, runs from *e.* to *w.* and enters the grand river Chucunaqui.

YABEO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Yahuyve and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It contains 147 families of Indians, and is 21 leagues *e.* of its capital.

YABEVIRI, a river of the province and government of Chaco in Peru, which rises in the mountains near the round mountain Yoivide, runs from *n. w.* to *s. e.* and enters the Paraguay. It is also called Rio Confuso and de los Fogones.

YABEVIRI, another river, in the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *s.*

YABI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chicas and Tarija in Peru, belonging to the district of the second.

YABOGE, a river of the province and government of Louisiana in N. America, which runs *s.* and then turning *w.* enters the sea in the bay of San Luis.

YACA, a river of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *e.* and enters the Paraná.

YACA, another river, in the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *e.* and enters the Paraná.

YACA, another, a small river in the province and government of Popayán and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, which enters the Putumayo, just after its rising.

[YACA-GUAZA, a parish of the province and government of Paraguay; in lat. 25° 58′ 2″ *s.* and long. 56° 32′ 19″ *w.*]

YACAN, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Tarma in Peru, annexed to the curacy of Huariaco.

YACANTO, mountains of, in the province and *corregimiento* of Cuyo, of the kingdom of Chile; they are *e.* of the city of Loyala, and run *s. s. e.* on the shore of the river Quinto, following the course of the same.

YACARE, a river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs *s.* and enters the Uruguay. This river, which is in the province and country of las Amazonas, in the territory and part possessed by the Portuguese, runs from *n.* to *s.* and enters the river Negro.

YACARE-GUZAU, a river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs *w.* and enters the Paraná, between the rivers Tuquara and Guasaiquirara.

YACARE-MINI, a river of the same province and government as the former. It runs also *w.*

parallel to the former river, and enters likewise into the Paraná, between the rivers Tuquaras and Cavayú.

YACARETIS, or YACARETES, a barbarous nation of Indians who inhabit the woods to the *n.* of the river Marañon. It is but little known, and its territory is said to be the famed land of Dorado, which has given rise to so many fables and inventions.

YACAYOBI, a river of the province and government of Paraguay, which rises in the *sierras* of Tape, runs *s. s. w.* and enters the Picazura.

YACARIQUARAS, a barbarous nation of Indians, who inhabit the mountains *n.* of the Marañon, near the Putumayo: on the *e.* side nothing is known of them save their name.

YACHILA, S. MARTIN DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Cuilapa and *alcaldía mayor* of Quatro Villas in Nueva España. It contains 78 families of Indians, and eight of free Mulattoes, all of whom are employed in cultivating and trading in cochineal, seeds, fruits, coal and wood, which they cut on the mountains. Eleven leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

YACO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Sicasica in Peru.

YACOCHI, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It contains 35 families of Indians, and is nine leagues *e.* of its capital.

YACOPI, a settlement of the jurisdiction of Muzo, and *corregimiento* of Tunja in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a hot temperature, very small and poor, its inhabitants maintaining themselves in cultivating cotton, maize, yucas and plantains.

YACOPI, another settlement, in the jurisdiction of the city of La Palma, in the same kingdom: annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Guachipai. It is also small, of a hot temperature, and very poor and reduced, yielding the same fruits as the former.

YACSANGA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Paccho.

YACUAPIRI, a river of the province and county of Las Amazonas, in the part possessed by the Portuguese. It runs *n. n. w.* and enters the Madera.

YACUI, a small river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs *w.* and enters the Uruguay between the Braquaenda and the San Ignacio.

YACUI, another, also small, of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *s. s. e.* and enters the Ucay.

YACUMA. See SANTA ANA.

YACUMARE, a settlement of the jurisdiction of Pamplona, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate at a small distance *s.* of the city of La Palma.

YACUMBE, a settlement of the province and government of Maracaibo, in the same kingdom as the former; situate near to the *s. s. e.* of the city of Tucuyo.

YAEE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, contains 143 families of Lapotecos Indians, and is nine leagues *w.* of its capital.

[YADKIN, a considerable river of N. Carolina, which rises in the Alleghany Mountains, running *e.* about 55 miles, then turning to the *s. s. e.* passes the Narrows, a few miles above Rocky River; thence directing its course through Montgomery and Anson Counties, enters S. Carolina. It is about 400 yards broad where it passes Salisbury, but it is reduced between two hills, about 25 miles to the *s.* of that town, to the width of 80 or 100 feet. For two miles it is narrow and rapid, but the most narrow and rapid part is not above half a mile in length. In this narrow part shad are caught in the spring of the year, by hoop nets, in the eddies, as fast as the strongest men are able to throw them out. Perhaps there is not in the United States a more eligible situation for a large manufacturing town. Boats with 40 or 50 hogsheads pass easily from these Rapids to Georgetown. The late war, by which N. Carolina was greatly convulsed, put a stop to several iron-works. At present there are four or five furnaces in the state that are in blast, and a proportionable number of forges. There is one in Guildford County, one in Surry, and one in Wilkes, all on the Yadkin. From the mouth of Rocky River to the ocean, the stream assumes the name of Great Pedee.]

YAGABILA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta, in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, contains 76 families of Indians, who in their district gather much cochineal, and is 12 leagues *w.* of its capital.

YAGAYO, a head settlement of the district of the same *alcaldía mayor* and kingdom as the former, also of a cold temperature. It contains 108 families of Indians, and is 10 leagues *w.* of its capital.

YAGO, S. a settlement of the province and

government of Mainas, in the kingdom of Quito; situate on the shore of the Marañon, near the capital of S. Francisco de Borja, and to the *w.* of the same.

[YAGO, S. a handsome and considerable town of S. America, capital of Chile. See SANTIAGO.]

[YAGO, S. DE LOS CABELLEROS, or ST. JAMES'S, an ancient town on the *n.* side of St. Domingo. See SANTIAGO.]

[YAGO, S. DE LA VEGA, or SPANISH TOWN, the capital of the island of Jamaica; situate in Middlesex County. See SANTIAGO.]

[YAGO, S. DE CUBA, a town on the *s.* coast of the island of Cuba. See SANTIAGO.]

[YAGO, S. the same as Santiago, which see.]

YAGUACHE, a district of the province and government of Guayaquil in the kingdom of Quito; one of the seven which compose this province. It is an extensive *llanura* of 12 leagues in length, composed of lands which in the winter time are covered with water, from the excessive swelling of the rivers, though in the summer time they are seen covered with flowers and fruits. It is bounded by the provinces of Riobamba and Alausi, by the river of this name; it produces salt, rice, fish, and some cattle, and with these it carries on a trade, as also with trees of *quachapeli*, yellow and red oak, and wood of *maria*, for masts of ships, the oil of which consists of a gum distilling from it, and so much celebrated for its medicinal qualities. In this district the wild canes grow to the height of 50 feet, being six inches thick; and of these are made the flooring and roofs of houses: and there are also some canes of a different nature, being one geometrical foot from knot to knot, and in which is found deposited, at the full of the moon, some very fresh, pleasant and salutary water, affording to the weary traveller a refreshing drink, never known to injure. The palms or coco-nut trees are very common, but peculiar for their height and for the abundance of their fruit, since each tree throws out a branch monthly, containing from 12 to 16 coco nuts, of the size of a common melon, with the bark of which they caulk vessels; making drinking cups for domestic uses of the shells, and of the water which is within them, a delightful and wholesome drink, also of the kernel, which is whiter than an almond, a much esteemed conserve. In the mountains which they call Belubulu, are abundance of hogs, *zahinos*, and wild boars, and other animals of the chase, which afford their flesh as food, whilst their skins are employed for different purposes.

This district, the jurisdiction of which begins from the foot of the mountains which divide, to the *s.* the government of Guayaquil from the province of Cuenca, and to the *e.* the same from that of Chimbo, comprehends part of the antient province of los Guancavelicas, a nation distinguished amongst all others, as wanting the two middle upper teeth, which they have been in the habit of extricating from time immemorial, and which circumstance is signified by their name; moreover, it is this nation which in the most pointed manner refute the general imputation given to Indians by certain philosophers; namely, that because they inhabited a hot climate, they must necessarily be weak and innervated. These Indians, although they have been but little under the yoke of the Incas, and still less benefited by their instruction, have, of themselves, maintained a regular government; nor have their rustic and unsophisticated habits prevented them from harbouring sentiments the most generous, from performing actions the most noble; nor have they, because brought up under the torrid zone, been wanting in feats of valour. They are divided into many numerous tribes, with their different *caciques*; and formed a republican government, maintaining a continual warfare with those provinces the most renowned in arms; such being the provinces of los Cañares and Purhuayes. They received the Spaniards by a peaceable convention of their *caciques*, and with a dignified generosity; and not only did they permit them to found the city of Guayaquil, but even lent them their assistance in the undertaking. Again, when the Spaniards had taken away from them their gold, they bore patiently with the wrong; but, when their women were taken from them, their resentment could no longer be confined, but they butchered with knives whomsoever they could catch, and destroyed the city which was lately founded; and, resolving no longer to be on amicable terms with their new guests, they maintained the war with such constancy as to destroy all the people that were sent from Lima and Quito. At length, finding themselves triumphant, they made the most liberal treaties of peace, and it was ultimately agreed, amongst various other articles, that the Spaniards should take their wives from their own nation, and leave their (the Indian) women unmolested; and, these articles being ratified, they have ever since remained tranquil and obedient. But the plague which visited this nation in 1589, almost entirely destroyed it; and nothing of it was in fact left, save some few individuals who were scattered through the woods and the mountains. The principal or head settle-

ment is of the same name, and the rest of the population is reduced to two other settlements, which are Alonche and Guafa.

The principal settlement, with the dedicatory title of San Jacinto, was formerly very numerous, but abandoned by the greater part of its inhabitants, from the river, on the shore of which it stood, having naturally changed its course to a league's distance; and this having caused a change not only of the pastures but of the custom-houses, which are there called Bodegas, and which were there established. In its church is venerated the beautiful painting or likeness of S. Jacinthus Dominican, which has kept for 158 years, and looks as though it were not more than a day old. This, as being the representation of the patron saint, is held in particular devotion; and, in times of danger and affliction, many are the vows, pilgrimages, and nine days prayers which are offered up to it by a vast concourse of people from all parts; though most particularly on the festival of the saint, which is the 15th of August. This settlement produces very much cotton; [and is 13 miles *n. e.* from the capital Guayaquil, but by the course of the river it is about 30 miles.]

YAGUAJES, S. Christoval de, a settlement of the missions of the Sucumbios Indians, which was under the charge of the Jesuits, in the province and government of Quixos and Macas, of the kingdom of Quito.

YAGUALICA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Cuquio in Nueva España.

YAGUARA, a river of the province and government of Popayán in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises at the foot of the *páramo* of Guanacas, runs from *w.* to *e.* in a serpentine course, and enters the grand river Magdalena above the city of la Plata.

YAGUARAIBA, a small river of the province and *captainship* of San Vincente, in the kingdom of Brasil. It runs *n. n. w.* and enters the Paranápané.

YAGUARAPARO, a settlement of the province and government of Cumaná in the kingdom of Nueva Andalucia, in the *serrania.* It is one of the missions held there by the Aragonese Capuchin fathers.

YAGUARATU, a river of the same province and *captainship* as the former. It runs to the same rhumb, and has the same course.

YAGUARCOCHA, a large and very deep lake of the province and *corregimiento* of Ibarra, in the kingdom of Quito. Its length is a league and a half from *n. e.* to *s. e.* and its name, signifying lake of blood, arises from the circumstance of Huaynacap having caused to flow into it, the blood of 30,000 Indians of the rebellious Cañares, guillotined at his command, and whom he had conquered in a battle when he went to subject them. From this lake rises a small river, which enters the Taquando, and its shores are full of rushes and reeds of *eneas.* One league from the town of Ibarra: in lat. 23° *n.*

Yaguarcocha, a settlement in the same province and kingdom: on the shore of the former lake.

YAGUARI, a river of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *s. s. w.* and enters the Picazuru.

YAGUARICARA, a small river of the province and *captainship* of Pará in Brasil, called also de Gentiles. It rises in the territory of the Antipiyus Indians, runs *n. n. w.* and enters the Topayos opposite the settlement of San Ignacio.

YAGUARON, a settlement of the province and government of Paraguay; situate near the river of this name. There is a fort to defend the entrance of the said river.

[Yaguaron, another settlement of Indians, of the province and government of Paraguay; situate in a plain on the road from Asuncion to Villa Rica, and about 25 miles *s. e.* from the former; in lat. 25° 33′ 20″ *s.* and long. 57° 18′ 14″ *w.*]

YAGUARSUNGU, or Yaguarsongo. See Pacamores.

YAGUAS, a barbarous nation of Indians, inhabiting the woods to the *n.* of the river Marañon. Some of them have been reduced to a civilized life by the Jesuits in the settlement of San Ignacio de Pevas.

YAGUERA, a settlement of the government and province of Neiva in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; annexed to the curacy of its capital. It is of an hot temperature, abounding in gold mines, vegetable productions and cattle.

YAGUI, a small river of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *e.* and enters the Paraná between the Guanapay and the Quirapuy.

YAHU, San Elias de, a settlement of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the territory possessed by the Portuguese; on the shore of the river Negro.

YAHUALICA, a district and *alcaldía mayor* of the kingdom of Nueva España. It it is the boundary dividing the archbishoprick of Mexico from that of Mechoacán, in the provinces of

Guasteca. It is of a mild temperature, abounding in wheat, maize, French-beans, and other seeds, which are the branches of its commerce, not to mention cotton, which is the principal in which the inhabitants are concerned, and which, through the stuffs they manufacture, yield great profit. Its population consists of four principal or head settlements, on which are dependent as many wards, and in these are many estates and cultivated farms, where a number of hands are employed in the cultivation of the seeds above enumerated. In the same also are many heads of cattle, large and small, in which an equal trade is carried on.

The capital is the settlement of the same name, of a mild temperature. It contains 80 families of Indians, and 60 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes; to the *n. e.* of Mexico. The other settlements are:

Huatzalingo, Guautla, Geapa.

YAHUIBE, Santa Maria de, a head settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta, in the same kingdom as the former. It is of a cold temperature, contains 220 families of Indians, and is 15 leagues *e.* of its capital.

YAHUYO, a head settlement of the same *alcaldía mayor* as the former. It is of a hot temperature, contains 147 families of Indians, and is 14 leagues between *w.* and *n.* of its capital.

YALAH, Punta de, a point on the *s.* coast of the island Jamaica, between Point Beacon and Villa Franca.

YALAHUI, a head settlement of the district of the same *alcaldía mayor* as the former. It is of a cold temperature, contains 44 families of Indians, and is three leagues *n.* of its capital.

YALALA, a head settlement of the district of the same *alcaldía mayor* as the former. It is of a hot temperature, contains 435 families of Indians including those of the wards of its district, and is six leagues *s.* of its capital.

YALARO, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas. It is a grand arm of the Madera, which returns to enter the same river in one of the many large flood pools belonging to it.

YALATLACO, Ascencion de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Metepéc, in Nueva España. It contains 277 families of Indians.

[YALE College. See New Haven.]

YALIGUE Lake, on the coast of the province and *corregimiento* of Colchagua, and kingdom of Chile. In it is found much salt.

[YAMACRAW, the ancient Indian name of the spot where Savannah, in Georgia, is erected. Also the name of a tribe of the Creek Indians.]

YAMARI, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas; which rises in the territory of the Oreguatus Indians, runs to *n.* and, inclining to *n. w.*, enters the Madera.

YAMBAJALCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Olieros.

YAMBE, a settlement of the province and government of Esmeraldas, in the kingdom of Quito.

YAMBRASBAMBA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas in Peru.

YAMENA, or Yamane, a settlement of the province and government of San Juan de los Llanos in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is very poor, and was a *reduccion* of the missions held there by the Jesuits. It is at present under the charge of the religious of San Francisco, and is annexed to the curacy of its capital, [S. Juan de los Llanos, and from which it is only about six miles to the *n.*]

YAMEOS, San Juan Francisco Regis de los, a settlement of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito. It is a *reduccion* of the missions which were held there by the Jesuits, and is the capital of various other settlements of Indians of this nation, from whom it took its name. It has on its *w.* side the river Tigre, and on the *e.* the nation of the Omaguas; it stands on the shore of the Marañon, in lat. 4° 26′ 11″ *s.*

YAMOR, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxatambo in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Caxacay.

YAMORIBA, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province of Topia and kingdom of Nueva Vizcaya; situate in the middle of the *sierra* of Topia, and on the shore of the river Piastla.

YAMPARAES, a province and *corregimiento* of Peru; bounded *n.* by the province of Misque, *n. e.* and *e.* by that of Tornina, *s. e.* by that of Pomabamba, *s.* and *s. e.* by that of Porco, the river Pilcomayo running between, and *w.* and *n. w.* by that of Chayanta, or Charcas. Its temperature is, for the most part, cold, and consequently its productions are *papas*, barley, some wheat, maize, and pulse, which serve for the supply and consumption of the city of la Plata and town of Potosi. In the heights are bred some cattle, and its mines of gold and silver are but very few; although it has an extremely abundant mine of

salt. It is watered by two considerable rivers, which are Pilcomayo and Cachimayo; and these, united with others which flow down from various provinces, enter the lands of Chaco, inhabited by infidel Indians. The former of these rivers comes from the province of Porco, has over it a stone bridge of one arch, over which you pass to that province, to la Plata, and to Potosi; it then divides this province from that of Mizque by the *n.* after having collected the waters of the river Cochabamba, and of another called Rio Grande, the which, after surrounding the *e.* part of the province of Santa Cruz, incorporate themselves with the Marmoré, and run to enter the Marañon. In these rivers they catch some fish, such as olive fish, *dorados*, *bagres;* and in some of the neighbouring vallies, which are of a warm temperature, and naturally fertile, are cultivated all kinds of garden herbs and fruit-trees; in one of these also, they grow vines, although in small number; and, in others, sugar canes. Moreover, towards these parts are woods, from which they procure timber for building and other uses; and, amongst the rest, are no few cedars.

In this province there are also wild beasts, troublesome and poisonous insects, and a multitude of birds, and, among others, one which is called *carpintero* (carpenter) which, in order to secure its young ones, forms its nest by making a hole with its beak in the trunk of a tree; again, certain bees depositing their honey in the like cavities, afford a ready repast to the former birds. Here are also other birds which are called *horneros* (oven birds), since they form, with extreme pains, some small dwellings of clay in the form of an oven, on the loftiest trees; but of such hardness, that though they should fall to the ground they are not to be broken.

The fertility of these vallies, and the advantages of their fruits, are outweighed by the inconveniences they experience from sicknes, occasioned by the damps, especially in the district of the curacies of Cupavilque, Mojotoro and Guanipaya, where, through the quality of the territory, air and water, the greater part of the natives are deformed, humpbacked, hard of hearing, squinters, and have ugly tumors on the throat, which they call *cotos;* there are, also, some, in the same parts, equally deformed in mind. The number of all should amount to 7000; and they live, for the most part, dispersed in the estates. Its capital is the settlement of the same name, [30 miles *n. w.* of Chusiqusaca, or La Plata.] Its *corregidior* had a *repartimiento* of 16,576 dollars, and it payed an *alcavala* of 132 yearly.

YANA, a river of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito. It rises *e.* of the settlement of Chamianos, runs *n.* and, forming a semicircle, pursues its course *e.* with different windings, to a vast distance; and ultimately turns to *n. n. e.* and enters the Marañon, changing its name to that of Samiria.

YANABAYA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Larecaxa in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Ayata.

YANABINI, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the Portuguese possessions. It runs from *e.* to *w.* and enters the Parime between the Yatapi and Demeveni.

YANAC, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Castro Virreyna in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Arma.

YANACA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Aimaraez in Peru.

YANACACHE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Sicasica in Peru.

YANACOA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canes and Canches in the same kingdom.

YANACUNAS, or YANACONAS, a nation of Indians, who, when conquered, pay an annual tribute to the king of 10 dollars each. These Indians, in the kingdom of Chile, are destined to the service of the Spaniards, who, however, are obliged to requite their services with wages of 50 dollars each yearly. They begin to pay tribute at the age of 16, and are indemnified from it when arrived at the age of 50 years. From this word Yanacuna, which in the Quechuan language signifies servant, has arisen the custom of calling by the same title all Indians who are acting in that capacity, making general the term which belonged to this nation specifically.

YANAHUARA, an antient province of Peru to the *w.* of Cuzco; bounded by the province of Aimaraez. It was conquered and united to the empire by Capac Yupanqui. There is also a settlement of this name, in the province and *corregimiento* of Arequipa.

YANAPAMPA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Quispicanchi in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Sangarara.

YANAQUIJUYA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Condesuyos de Arequipa in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Andaray.

YANAS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Conchucos in Peru; annexed to the curacy of Uco.

YANASSA, a river of the province and government of Quixos and Macas in the kingdom of Quito, and of the district of the second. It rises in the *sierra*, which divides this district from the province of Mainas; runs nearly from *n.* to *s.* through the country of the Xibaros, and enters the Morona by the *w.* part; in lat. 3° 17′ *s.*

YANAURA, an island of the N. Sea; situate at the principal mouth of the river Marañon, between the coast of Guayana and the great island of Joanes or Marajo. Mr. Bellin, engineer to the King of France, in his description of Guayana, calls it Yanaucú.

YANA-YACU, a small river of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito, which runs to *n. n. w.* and enters the Yana, near its source.

YANA-URCU, a very lofty mountain of the province and *corregimiento* of Otavalo in the kingdom of Quito, in the *n.* part. Its top is covered with snow the whole year round, and from it rise many streams and fountains, and, in the *n. w.* part, the river of Santiago, which, at its source, is called Cayapas; in lat. 28° *n.*

YANCAO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Iguari.

YANERI, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta, in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, contains 98 Indian families, and is 13 leagues *w.* of its capital.

YANGA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canta, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Arahuay.

YANGUA, a small river of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *w.* and enters the Parana, near the settlement of Corpus Christi.

YANGUITLAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tepozcolula, in Nueva España. It was formerly a separate jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor;* contains a convent of the religious of St. Domingo, to whom the cure belongs, the said convent being entirely of wrought stone, and built upon arches, and well worthy of the admiration of the most skilled in similar subjects. In short it is the best edifice in all that kingdom: it was begun by Don Francisco de las Casas, kinsman to the noted Herman Cortes, whilst governor of this settlement, and was finished by his son Don Gonzalo, the building of it having taken a period of 25 years; and during this time there being employed in it 600 Indians, who were exchanged for a fresh set every week. The master, or architect, was one of those who had been employed in the building of San Lorenzo el Real, and was sent hither by Philip II. The settlement is situate in a beautiful valley, surrounded by mountains. It enjoys a pure air, a fine atmosphere, a benign temperature, and delicious waters. It was, in the time of the Indian gentilism, a large town, and contained 10,000 inhabitants; but these are now reduced, including those of the wards of its district, to 900 families of Mistecos Indians, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes; all of whom are employed in the cultivation and trade of cochineal and woven cotton stuffs: 52 leagues *e.* of Mexico.

YANI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cochabamba, in Peru.

[YANKTONS ANNAH, Indians of N. America. They are the best disposed Siouz who rove on the banks of the Missouri, but they will not suffer any trader to ascend the river, if they can possibly avoid it: they have, heretofore, invariably arrested the progress of all they have met with, and generally compelled them to trade at the prices, nearly, which they themselves think proper to fix on their merchandise: they seldom commit any further acts of violence on the whites. They sometimes visit the river Demoin, where a partial trade has been carried on with them, for a few years past, by a Mr. Crawford. Their trade, if well regulated, might be rendered extremely valuable. Their country is a very fertile one; it consists of a mixture of woodlands and *prairies*. The land bordering on the Missouri is principally plains with but little timber.]

[YANKTONS OF THE NORTH, Indians of N. America, who are in a small degree traders, but for the most part independent of the trade of the Missouri. They have rather furnished themselves with the means, not only of distressing and plundering the traders of the Missouri, but also of plundering and massacreing the defenceless savages of the Missouri, from the mouth of the river Plata to the Minetares, and *w.* to the rocky mountains. The country these people inhabit is almost one entire plain, without timber; it is extremely level; the soil fertile, and generally well watered.]

YANQUE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chumbivilcas, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Colquemarca.

YANQUI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Collahuas, in Peru. It was the capital before the discovery of the mine of Cail-

loma, when the former was removed to this latter place. It is now very poor, and reduced.

YANTA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canta, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pomacocha.

YANTALO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Sorita.

YAPA, a settlement of the same province and kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Yambrasbamba.

YAPE, a river of the province and government of Darien, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme. It rises in the mountains of the interior, runs from *e.* to *w.* and enters the Grande Tuira.

YAPEL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Santiago, in the kingdom of Chile, celebrated for its rich gold mine, from which great wealth has been extracted.

[YAPERAES. See Aperues.]

[YAPEYA, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, situate on the *w.* bank of the Uruguay, in lat. 29° 31′ 47″ *s.* and long. 56° 38′ 28″ *w.*]

YAPEYU, a large settlement of the province and government of Paraguay, called also de los Santos Reyes. It is a *reduccion* made by the missions of the Jesuits, and is situate on the *w.* shore of the river Uruguay, and on the *n.* side of the settlement of Aguapey. The Infidel Indians, united with Mamelucos of San Pablo, pillaged and destroyed it in 1701, but the Neofites, assisted by 200 Spaniards, pursued the aggressors, overtook them, and gave them battle, and succeeded in putting them all to the sword, returning with the spoils to rebuild the settlement: [in lat. 29° 28′ 6″ *s.*]

YAPITINGO, a river of the province and *captainship* of Ilheos, in Brasil. It rises near the coast, runs *e.* and enters the sea in the Bay.

Yapitingo, a settlement of the same province and kingdom as the former river; and on the shore and at the mouth of the same.

YAPIZLAGA. See Manso.

YAPO, a river of the province and *captainship* of San Vincente, in Brasil; which runs *n.* and enters the Parana-pane.

YAPOCO. See Oyacopo.

YAPUI, a very rapid river, which flows down from the mountains of the Chiquitos Indians, in Peru, and enters by the *w.* side into the Paraguay.

YAQUANQUER, a settlement of the province and government of Pastos, in the kingdom of Quito; of the jurisdiction of the *corregimiento* of the district of las Cinco le guas de la Capital.

YAQUARI, a small river of the province of Guaira, in the government of Paraguay. It runs *w.* and enters the Paraná.

YAQUE, a large and abundant river of St. Domingo, which rises in the mountains of Ciboo; runs *n.*; and, on passing opposite the city of Santiago, turns its course to *w.* then collecting the waters of all those which flow to the sea, disembogues itself in a very abundant stream on the *n.* coast, forming a great mouth on the side of the Point of Monte Christi.

[Yaque, Port St. at the mouth of the above river, vulgarly called Old Port, a small anchoring place on the *n.* side of the island of St. Domingo; situate between Padrepin on the *w.* and Macoris Point on the *e.*]

YAQUEACU, a river of the province and *captainship* of Pernambuco, in Brasil; which rises near the coast, runs *s. s. e.* and enters the sea between the San Miguel and the Iquen.

YAQUEHIRI, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the Portuguese possessions. It runs from *n.* to *s.* and enters the Parima or river Branco.

YAQUESON, Port, on the *n.* coast of the island of St. Domingo, within the Bay of Barbacoas.

YAQUIA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Conchucos, in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the capital Huary del Rey.

YAQUIN, or Acquin, a settlement and parish of the French in their possessions in the island of St. Domingo, at the *w.* point, near the *s.* coast, and the isle of its name.

YAQUINI, a small river of the province and government of Paraguay; which runs *w.* and enters the Paraná, between the Teidi and the Piracabi.

YAQUITLA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Chiapa, in the kingdom of Guatemala; belonging to the district and division of Comitlan.

YARACES. See Orejones.

YARAPAZI, a small river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the Portuguese possessions. It rises in the territory of the Aicuares Indians, between the river Marañon and the Caquetá, runs following the same course as the former, and enters the same just before one of the arms, into which the second river above mentioned is divided.

YARAQUI, a river of the province and government of Venezuela, in the Nuevo Reyno de

Granada. It rises in the *sierra* to the *e.* of Baraquisimieto, follows its course to this *rhumb*, and enters the sea in the bay of Burburata, between port Cabello and the point of Chiribiche. [The Yaraqui rises 40 leagues *s.* to the Aeroa, and does not become navigable until within two leagues of S. Felipe, where the produce of the valley of S. Felipe is shipped, together with that of the plain of Baraquisimieto, and from thence conveyed to Porto Cabello, as the nearest port.]

YARAUCA, an arm of the river Marañon, which enters by the *s.* side, and forms the island of Guaricura.

YARDSLEY'S FERRY, on Delaware river, is three miles *n. w.* of Trenton, in New Jersey, and five below M'Crankey's Ferry.

YARE, a settlement of the province and government of Venezuela, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river Tuy, near the settlement of Ocumare.

YARI, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the territory of the Portuguese. It runs *s. e.* and enters the Marañon opposite the settlement of Curupa, in lat. 49′ *s.*

YARI, a settlement of the Portuguese, in the same province as the former.

YARMARCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas in Peru, where there is a mine of rock salt, of excellent quality, and from whence much of this article is extracted.

YARMOUTH, a city of the county of Barnstable, in the colony of Plymouth, of the United States; situate in the *s.* part of the peninsula, formed by the bay of Cape Cod; five miles *s.* of Barnstable.

YARMOUTH, another city, in the county of York, of the colony of Hampshire, on the coast of Casco Bay, and at the mouth of Royal River. It is small, and stands midway between Brunswick and Falmouth.

[YARMOUTH, a township in the County of Middlesex, Upper Canada, lying to the *w.* of Malahide, and fronts lake Erie.]

YARMOUTH, a fort, built by the English in the province of Connecticut one of those of New England, of the United States; situate on the coast having the capital, Boston, on the *n.*

YAROCALLA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxatambo in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Cochamarca.

YAROS, a barbarous nation of Indians, of the province and government of Paraguay, descendants of the Charuas. They inhabit the territory between the river Tibiguari to the *n.*, the Uruguay to the *w.*, and the Negro to the *s.* They have no fixed abode, but go wandering about, and tarrying only in places where they may find good hunting and fishing, as by these means they subsist.

YARUBA, a small river of the province and country of las Amazonas, which runs *e.* and enters the Madera.

YARUNCAI, a river of the province and *corregimiento* of Cuenca, in the kingdom of Quito. It passes a quarter of a league from that city.

YARUPA, SAN MIGUEL DE, a settlement of the province and country of las Amazonas, a *reduccion* of the missions which were held by the Jesuits. It is situate on the shore of the Marañon, close to a lake called la Rebalsa.

YARUQUI, a settlement of the kingdom of Quito, in the district of the *corregimiento* of las Cinco Leguas de la Capital. It has a rich estate in its vicinity, called Oyambura, and a large *llanura*, celebrated for the two pyramids which were fixed there by the academicians of the sciences of Paris, in record of the astronomical observations they made, of their measurement of the degrees of the equator, and of their plans for determining the true figure of the earth; thus perpetuating their useful labours. But the audience gave orders for the removal of these pyramids, and the sensation of disgust thereby occasioned was universally great. The settlement is of a mild and benign climate, and fertile and abundant in vegetable productions. It has to the *e.* the *cordillera* of mountains of Guamani, and of Pambamarca, and on the *w.* the *cordillera* of Pichinche. It was formed from the neighbourhood of the settlement of Cacha, which was swallowed up in 1640: in lat. 10° 7′ *s.*

YARUQUIES, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Riobamba, in the kingdom of Quito.

YARUSE, a small river of the province and government of Jaen de Bracamoros, in the kingdom of Quito. It rises in the *cordillera* of the province of Loxa, runs from *n.* to *s.* and enters the Santiago, on that side on which are the ruins of the city of Zamora la Vieja.

YASALUN, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Zedales, in the kingdom of Guatemala.

YASOVA, a river of the province and government of Louisiana. It has its origin 60 leagues above the Mississippi, and into this it afterwards enters in a very large stream. On

its shores dwell the nations of the Yasoves, Tounicas, and Kourovas Indians.

YASOVA, a settlement in the same province and government as the former river, and situate on its shore. This settlement was destroyed by the French; its natives having been in alliance with the English.

YASQUAL, a settlement of the province and government of Pastos, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada.

YATA PRIMERO, a river of the province and government of Moxos, in the kingdom of Quito. It rises from the lake of Rogagualo, runs to the *n.* in a serpentine course for many leagues; then turns *e.* and enters the Madera, in the territory and country of the Cauibabas Indians.

YATA, another river, with the addition of Segundo, in the same province and government. It has the same origin as the former river, runs parallel to it, and enters also the Madera, towards the side where that river is entered by the Beni.

YATACHES, a settlement of Indians, of the province and government of Texas, in N. America, on the shore of the river Colorado.

YATAO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta, in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, contains 105 families of Indians, and is nine leagues from its capital.

YATAPIRI, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the part possessed by the Portuguese. It runs *w.* and enters the Parime, between the rivers Jocota and Janabini.

YATASCO, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán in Peru; situate on the shore of the river of its name.

YATASCO, the above river, rises in the district of the jurisdiction of Salta. It runs *e.* and enters the Pasage between the rivers Cañas and Metán.

YATERA, a port of the island of Cuba, near the extremity of the *s.* coast, between two other ports, called Escondido and la Sabana del Mar.

YATI, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river Cauca, on a long strip of land which this river forms in the district of Mompox, near the spot where it enters the Grande de la Magdalena.

YATONI, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It contains 57 families of Indians, and is five leagues and a half from its capital.

[YATTASSEES, Indians of N. America, who live on Bayau Pierre, (or Stony Creek) which falls into the Red River, *w.* division, about 50 miles above Natchitoches. Their village is in a large *prairie* about half way between the Caddopues and Natchitoches, surrounded by a settlement of French families. The Spanish government at present exercise jurisdiction over this settlement, where they keep a guard of a non-commissioned officer and eight soldiers, but the Yattasees are unwilling to bend to their authority, and in spite of them persist in trading with the Americans.

This settlement, till some few years ago, used to belong to the district of Natchitoches, and the rights to their lands were given by the government of Louisiana, before it was ceded to Spain. The Yattassees at one time say they belong to the French, and at another, to the Americans.

Of the ancient Yattassees there are but eight men remaining, and 25 women, besides children; but a number of men of other nations have intermarried with them and live together. Their original language differs from any other; but now all speak Caddo. They live on rich land, raise plenty of corn, beans, pumpkins, tobacco, &c.; have horses, cattle, hogs and poultry.]

YAU, a settlement of the missions held by the Portuguese Carmelite Fathers, in the country of las Amazonas; situate on the point of land formed by the river Negro, and at the junction of this with the river of las Amazonas.

YAUARAYA, a small river of the province and *captainship* of Seara in Brasil, which runs *n.* between the rivers Jacunda and Pacajas, and enters that of las Amazonas in the arm formed by the island of Marajo.

YAVARI, an island of the river of las Amazonas, opposite the settlement of Tuhere.

YAUCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Camaná in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Acari.

YAVEIRI, a river of the province and government of Chaco in Peru.

YAVI, SAN FRANCISCO DE, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán in Peru; situate on the shore of a small river to the *w.* of the town of Tarija. It is of the jurisdiction of the city of Xuxuy; annexed to the curacy of Santa Catalina, has a large chapel of ease, which was built by the Marquis del Valle del Tojo, and is kept in a magnificent manner by his successors.

YAVICHE, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España.

It is of a hot temperature, contains 50 families of Indians, and is eight leagues *w.* of its capital.

YAVINCAN, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxamaca in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pipincos in the province of Jaen.

YAVIZA, a settlement of the province and government of Darien in the kingdom of Tierra Firme; situate on the shore of the river Tuira, near the Gulf of San Miguel. At a small distance is a fort, lately built for its defence.

YAULI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huarochiri in Peru. It is large, a head settlement of the district, over seven other settlements dependent upon it, and is celebrated as well for the rich silver mines in its neighbourhood, which are called Nuevo Potosi, as for its baths of mineral waters.

YAURI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canes and Canches in Peru. It has in its district two mines of copper, and some of gold; but neither the one nor the other are worked. It has also two chapels or sanctuaries, the one of the Virgin of Huancani, the other of la Candelaria, and both of these are annexed to its curacy.

YAURISQUE. a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chilques and Masques in Peru.

YAUTEPEC, a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca in Nueva España. It has in its jurisdiction four settlements, which contain 150 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and 223 of Indians; all of which live very comfortably, as the settlement is situate in a valley, which is pleasant, well watered, and planted plentifully with sugar canes, of which they make loaf-sugar. Here they also cultivate various fruits and seeds, such as maize, melons, French-beans, and *garbanzos*. It has a beautiful convent of the religious of St. Domingo, and an hospital of the title of la Caridad de San Hipolito; five leagues *e.* of its capital.

YAUTEPEC, another settlement, with the dedicatory title of San Bartolome, which is a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa, in the same kingdom as the former. It is of a hot temperature, situate in a plain, and inhabited by 45 families of Indians, who exercise themselves in the cultivation of the sugar-cane, for the purpose of making loaf-sugar. In its district are various gardens, which, through the salutary influence of a river which passes opposite the settlement, produces many fruits of the country. This district comprehends eight settlements.

YAUYAUGANI, a settlement of Indians of the province and colony of Virginia in N. America; situate on the shore of the river of its name.

YAUYAUGANI, this river runs *n. w.* and enters the Ohio.

YAUYOS, a province and *corregimiento* of the kingdom of Peru; bounded *n.* and *n. w.* by the province of Guarochiri, *e.* by those of Xauxa and Angaraes, *s. w.* and *s.* by that of Castro Virreyna, and *w.* by that of Cañete. Its length is 34 leagues from *n.* to *s.* and its width 38 from *e.* to *w.* It is one of the provinces of the most unequal and craggy territory in the whole kingdom, and is extremely cold, with the exception of one or other ravine; its mountains being of the cordillera real, and always covered with snow, so that a way must be opened to effect a pass through them; some have the precaution of erecting stones in the said passes by way of a guide, whilst others will make steps with a pick-axe, and, amongst these flights, that by which you descend to the settlement of Pampas, is the most curious. For the above reasons this province was, in antient times, but thinly peopled, and no monuments whatever are to be found in it. In its mountains breed many *vicuñas* and *huanacos*, and in the ravines are found deer and mountain-cats, and some cattle; and of the skins of these the Indians make woven stuffs, which they barter on the coast, taking in exchange grain for their subsistence, the crops here being extremely small. It is only in those parts that are less cold, that various mines have been discovered; but very few of them have been worked, the advantages not covering the expense of the labour. It has many streams, which, united, flow down to the coast and form the rivers which water the province of Cañete. Its *corregidor* had a *repartimiento* of 125,000 dollars, and it payed 1000 for *alcavala* annually. The capital is of the same name, and the other settlements are;

Tauripampa,	Cachuy,
Allauca,	Quisque,
Tupi,	Porocha,
Cusi,	Pampas,
Pocoto,	Putinsa.
Cappilluca,	

[The district of Yauyas contains seven doctrinal curacies, and 25 settlements inhabited by 9574 souls; 12 clergy, 13 Spaniards, 8005 Indians, 93 *Mustees*, and 1457 free Mulattoes.

The value of its productions is 20,200 dollars. (Guia del Peru, 1797.)]

YAXONI, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Chixila and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, contains 42 families of Indians, and is nine leagues *n.* of its capital.

YAZEC, a small river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the Portuguese possessions. It runs *n.* between the rivers Yerbal and Yutay, and enters the Marañon or Amazonas.

YAZECHE, Alto, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, contains 88 families of Indians, and is six leagues *s.* of its capital.

Yazeche, another settlement in the same *alcaldía mayor* and kingdom, also a head settlement of the district, but having the surname of Baxo, to distinguish it from the former. It is also of a cold temperature, contains 130 families of Indians, and is five leagues from its capital, by the same *rhumb* as the former.

YAZONA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, contains 190 families of Indians, who occupy themselves in cultivating cochineal, and is three leagues *n.* of its capital.

[YAZOO, or Yasoo, River, in Georgia W. Territory, consists of three large branches, which united, pursue a *s. w.* course a few miles, and the confluent stream enters the *e.* bank of the Mississippi, by a mouth upwards of 100 yards wide; according to Mr. Gauld, in lat. 32° 37′ *n.* and by Mr. Purcel, in 32° 38′. See Georgia Western Territory.]

[Yazoo Cliffs, or Aux Cotes, lie 7½ miles from the river Yazoo, and 39¾ miles from Lousa Chitto, or Big Black River.]

YAZU, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Canta in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Arahuay.

[YBICUY, a parish of the province and government of Paraguay; situate on the river Mbouyapey, about 55 miles *s. e.* from Asuncion, in lat. 26° 0′ 54″ *s.* and long. 57° 1′ 7″ *w.*]

[YBITIMIRI, a parish of the province and government of Paraguay, in lat. 25° 45′ 43″ *s.* and long. 56° 53′ 2″ *w.*]

YCA, a province of Peru. See Ica.

YCAQUE, or Icaco, the *n.* point of the Bay of Mancenilla, in the island of St. Domingo.]

YEBINETO, a small river of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito. It runs *e.* and turning *n. n. e.* enters the Urquicia.

YECHIBIDE, Cerro de, a mountain of the province and government of Chaco in Peru, *w.* of the settlement of San Ignacio de Zamucos.

YECORA, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province of Cinaloa, of N. America.

Yecora, another settlement of the missions of the Jesuits, in the province of Ostimuri.

YECUATLA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Naulingo, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xalapa in Nueva España, at the boundary of the jurisdiction of the district of this head settlement.

YECUDAHUE, a small river of the province and *corregimiento* of Maule, in the kingdom of Chile. It runs *n.* and enters the Tabolebo.

YEGUADA, River of the, in the island of St. Domingo; it is small, and runs to the *w.* head and *n.* coast of the great Bay of Samaná, where it enters the sea between the rivers Jaina and Guanabo.

YELAMBO, a settlement of the province and government of Antioquia, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the Grande de la Magdalena.

[YELLOW Mountain. See Tennessee.]

YELOXI, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta, in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, contains 82 families of Indians, and is nine leagues *s.* of its capital.

YELTECOMATL, San Nicolas de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Huipuxtla, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tepetango in Nueva España. It contains 35 families of Indians.

YEMI, a small river of the province and country of las Amazonas, which rises in the territory of the Chunamas Indians, runs from *n.* to *s. s. e.* and enters the Marañon opposite the settlement of San Pablo de los Omaguas.

YEPOMERA, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province of Tacaumara, and kingdom of Nueva Vizcaya; 31 leagues *w.* by *s.* of the town and *real* of mines of Chiguagua.

YERABUENA, a port of the coast of the province and *corregimiento* of Coquimbo in the kingdom of Chile.

Yerabuena, a point, or long strip of land; being one of those which form the above port.

Yerabuena, a port of the coast of the S. Sea, in the province and *corregimiento* of Arica, and

kingdom of Peru, on the boundary of the province of Arequipa; in lat. 17° 35′.

YERBAL, a small river of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs *s.* and enters the Rio Negro.

YETES, a barbarous nation of Indians of the river Marañon, descended from those of the Omaguas. They dwell in the woods and mountains *n.* of the Napo, in the territory of the Encabellados; are very few, and live dispersed without any fixed abode.

YETLA, San Mateo de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Chinantla, and *alcaldía mayor* of Cozamaloapán, in Nueva España; situate in a large and beautiful valley, through which meanders a stream equally crystalline and abundant, and which is surrounded by a belt of various mountains, covered with cedars, pines, and ocotales, from which they gather *teas*, used as torches. Its temperature is mild, with an inclination to hot. It contains 20 families of Chiantecos Indians, who maintain themselves by a great trade in seeds, cotton, exquisite woods, and various fruits; 13 leagues *s.* of the settlement of Utzila, and 63 *s.* of its capital.

Yetla, another, a small settlement in the *alcaldía mayor* of Guauchinango, of the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Haola.

YETZELALA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guachinango, of the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Haola.

Yetzelala, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, contains 50 families of Indians, and is five leagues *n.* of its capital.

YETZICUBI, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of the same *alcaldía mayor* and kingdom as the former. It is of a cold temperature, contains 89 families of Indians, and is two leagues *n.* of its capital.

[YLO, a town and port of Peru. See Ilo.]

YOA, a lake of the province and country of las Amazonas, formed by a waste-water of the Madera: it stands on the bank of this river, and between the rivers to the *n.* of the Paracevini.

YOBEGO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Chixtla, and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta, in Nueva España. It contains ten families of Indians, and is 11½ leagues from its capital.

YOCALLA, a settlement of tbe province and *corregimiento* of Porco in Peru. At its entrance over the river Cachimayo, is a bridge of stone, one of the best in the whole kingdom: 10 leagues from Potosi.

YOCARBAYA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Larecaja in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Italaque.

YOCON, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cuenca, in the kingdom of Quito; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Cañar.

YOCOPO, a river of the province and government of Cayena, in Nueva Andalucia. It rises in the mountains, and enters the sea at the side of Cape Orange.

YOHI, a river of the province and government of Guayana, or Nueva Andalucia. It is formed by an union of the Tocome and Hichique, representing the figure of a Y, from which it takes its name. It enters the Orinico opposite the settlement of Alta Gracia.

[YOHOGANY, a river of N. America, the principal branch of Monogohela River, called also Youghiogeny, and Toxhiogeni, pursues a *n w.* course, and passes through the Laurel Mountain, about 30 miles from its mouth; is, so far, from 300 to 250 yards wide, and the navigation much obstructed in dry weather by rapids and shoals. In its passage through the mountain it makes very great falls, admitting no navigation for 10 miles, to the Turkey-foot. Thence to the Great Crossing, about 20 miles, it is again navigable except in dry seasons, and at this place is 200 yards wide. The sources of this river are divided from those of the Patowmack, by the Alleghany Mountain. From the falls, where it intersects the Laurel Mountain, to Fort Cumberland, the head of the navigation to the Patowmack, is 40 miles of very mountainous road. The country on this river is uneven, but in the vallies the soil is extremely rich. Near to Pittsburg the country is well peopled, and there, as well as in Redstone, all the comforts of life are in the greatest abundance. This whole country abounds with coal, which lies almost on the surface of the ground.]

YOIBIDE, a very lofty mountain of the province and government of the Chiquitos Indians in Peru. On its *s.* is a lake, producing much salt. It was near this mountain that the brother of Albert Romero, of the Jesuits, suffered martyrdom.

YOJOBI, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It is of a hot temperature, contains 55 families of

Indians, and is three leagues and a quarter *w.* of its capital.

YOLO, a settlement of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Octupam in Nueva España.

YOLOTEPEC, Santa Maria de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tepozcolula, in the province and bishopric of Oaxaca in Nueva España. It contain 254 families of Indians, including those who dwell in the wards of its district; and in these wards are many farms, yielding abundant crops of wheat and maize. It is of a hot temperature, and 19 leagues *s.* of its capital.

YOLOXINISQUILA, San Pedro de, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Teocuilco in Nueva España. It contains 224 families of Indians, including those of the wards of its district, produces cochineal in abundance, this being its only fruit; though the ground itself is very favourable to all kind of fruits. The inhabitants, however, have their minds so fixed on this lucrative production, that they even neglect the cultivation of the necessaries of life.

YOEHUE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Quillota in the kingdom of Chile, on the coast, near the river Imperial.

[YONGE, a township, in the county of Leeds, Upper Canada; it is the tenth township in ascending the river St. Lawrence.]

[YONGE-STREET, is the direct communication from York to Lake Simcoe, Upper Canada, opened during the administration of his excellency Major-general Lieutenant-governor Simcoe, who having visited Lake Huron by Lake Aux Claies, (formerly also called Ouentaronk, or Sinion, and now named Lake Simcoe) and discovered the harbour of Fenetengushere (now Gloucester) to be fit for shipping, resolved on improving the communication from Lake Ontario to Lake Huron, by this short rout, thereby avoiding the circuitous passage of Lake Erie.

This street has been opened in a direct line, and the road made by the troops of his excellency's corps. It is 30 miles from York to Holland's River, at the fine fort called Gwillimbury, where the road ends; from thence you descend into Lake Simcoe, and having passed it, there are two passages into Lake Huron; the one by the river Severn, which conveys the waters of Lake Simcoe into Gloucester Bay; the other by a small portage, a continuation of Yonge-street, to a small lake which also runs into Gloucester Bay; this communication affords many advantages; merchandize from Montreal to Michilimackinac may be sent this way at ten or fifteen pounds less expence per ton, than by the route of the Grand or Ottawa River; and the merchandize from New York, to be sent up the North and Mohawk Rivers, from the *n. w.* trade, finding its way into Lake Ontario at Oswego (Fort Ontario) the advantages will certainly be felt of transporting goods from Oswego to York, and from thence across Yonge-street, and down the waters of Lake Simcoe into Lake Huron, in preference to sending it by Lake Erie.]

[YONKERS, a township of New York, in W. Chester County; bounded *e.* by Bronx River, and *w.* by the county of York, and Hudson's River. It contained, in 1790, 1125 inhabitants, of whom 139 were electors, and 170 slaves.]

[Yonkers, a post-town of New York, 114 miles from Philadelphia.]

YOTAHUACAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Cuquio in Nueva España, on the shore of the river Verde, and four leagues *s.* of its capital.

YOTALA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Yamparaes in Peru, of the archbishopric of Charcas.

[YORK, New, one of the United States. See New York.]

[York, a maritime and populous county of the district of Maine; bounded *e.* and *n. e.* by Cumberland, *s.* by the ocean, *w.* by New Hampshire, from which it is separated by Salmon Fall River, and *n.* by Canada. It is well watered by Saco, Mousom, and other streams, and is divided into 27 townships, and contains 28,821 inhabitants. Chief town, York.]

[York, a post-town of the district of Maine, in York County, nine miles *n. e.* of Portsmouth, in New Hampshire, 13 *s.* of Wells, 37 *s.* by *w.* of Portland, and 53 from Boston, lat. 43° 8′ *n.* It is a port of entry and capital of the county. The river of its name empties into York Harbour at the town. It is navigable for vessels of 250 tons. About a mile from the sea is a wooden bridge across the river, 270 feet in length, which was erected in 1761. Before the war, 25 or 30 vessels were employed in the W. India trade, and coasting business, but their vessels were taken or destroyed, and little marine business is now done, except that a small fishery is supported. This township was settled in 1630, and called Agamenticus, from the hill of that name, which is a noted land-mark for mariners. In 1640, Sir Ferdinand Gorges incorporated a great part of it by the name of Georgiana. In the year 1692, the Indians took the town by surprise, and burnt most of the houses, and 150 persons were killed

or captivated. It contained, according to the census of 1790, 2900 persons. Fish of various kinds frequent the rivers and shores of the sea contiguous. In a calm season, in the summer, one may stand on the rocks of the shore, and catch them in the sea, with a line, or even with an angling rod, and a fathom or two of line.]

[York, a county of Pennsylvania, bounded *e.* and *n. e.* by Susquehannah River, which separates it from Lancaster and Dauphine Counties, and *s.* by the State of Maryland. It contained, in 1790, 29 townships, and 37,747 inhabitants.]

[York, a post-town and capital of the above county; situate on the *e.* side of Codorus Creek, which empties into the Susquehannah. It contains about 500 houses, several of which are of brick. The town is regularly laid out; the public buildings are a court-house, a stone gaol, a record-office, handsomely built, an academy, a German Lutheran, a German Calvinist, a Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, and Moravian church, and a Quaker meeting-house. It is 22 miles *w. s. w.* of Lancaster, 40 *n. w.* by *n.* of Hartford, in Maryland, 73 *w.* of Philadelphia.]

[York, a county of S. Carolina, in Pinckney district; bounded *e.* by Catawba River, *n.* by the State of N. Carolina; *s.* by Chester County, and *w.* by Broad River, which divides it from Spartanburg, and is one of the most agreeable and healthy counties in the State, and well watered by Catawba and Broad Rivers, and their tributaries. It contained, in 1790, 6604 inhabitants, of whom 5652 were whites, and 923 slaves. Here are extensive iron-works. This county sends three representatives and one senator to the State legislature.]

[York, a county of Virginia, bounded *n.* by York River, which divides it from Gloucester County, *s.* by Warwick, *e.* by Elizabeth City County, and *w.* by that of James City. It contained, in 1790, 5233 inhabitants, of whom 2760 were slaves.]

[York, or Yorktown, a port of entry and post-town of Virginia, and capital of York County. It is agreeably situate on the *s.* side of York River, where the river is suddenly contracted to a narrow compass, opposite to Gloucester, and a mile distant, where there is a fort fronting that on the York side, about 11 miles *w.* by *s.* of Toes Point, at the mouth of the river. The banks of the river are very high, and vessels of the greatest burden may ride close under them with the greatest safety. It contained, in 1790, about 60 or 70 houses, a gaol, an Episcopal church, and a tobacco warehouse. In the same year it contained 661 inhabitants, of whom 372 were slaves. Its exports, in the year 1794, amounted to 71,578 dollars. It will ever be famous in the American annals for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army, by the combined force of the United States and France, which took place on the 19th of October, 1781. It is 12 miles *e.* of Williamsburgh, 15 *n. w.* of Hampton, 57 *e. s. e.* of Richmond. Lat. 37° 16′ *n.* Long. 76° 35′ *w.*]

[York, a county, of Upper Canada, it consists of two ridings, the *e.* and *w.* The *e.* riding is bounded on the *e.* by the *w.* line of the county of Durham; on the *s.* by Lake Ontario, until it meets the *e.* boundary of Toronto township, which, with the Missassaga tract, gives its *w.* limits, and on the *n.* by Holland's River, Lake Simcoe, and Talbot River, until it meets the *n. w.* boundary of the county of Durham. The *w.* riding of the county of York is bounded on the *e.* by the townships of King, Vaughan, and York; on the *s.* by the Lake Ontario, Burlington Bay, and Dundas-street; on the *w.* by the London district; and on the *n.* by the county of Simcoe. It sends, in conjunction with the county of Durham, and the first riding of the county of Lincoln, one representative to the provincial parliament.]

[York, the capital of the above county of its name, is in about 43° 35′ of *n.* lat. and is the present seat of government of Upper Canada. It is most beautifully situate within an excellent harbour of the same name, made by a long peninsula, which confines a bason of water, sufficiently large to contain a considerable fleet: on the extremity of the peninsula, which is called Gibraltar Point, are commodious stores and block-houses, which command the entrance to the harbour: on the main land, opposite to the point, is the garrison, situated in a fork made by the harbour and a small rivulet; the barracks being built on a knoll, are well situated for health, and command a delightful prospect of the lake to the *w.* and of the harbour to the *e.* The government house is about two miles from the *e.* end of the town, at the entrance of the harbour, and the town is increasing rapidly; the river Don empties itself into the harbour a little above the town, running through a marsh, which when drained will afford most beautiful and fruitful meadows. This has already been commenced in a small degree, which will no doubt encourage farther attempts. The long beach or peninsula, which affords a most delightful ride, is considered so healthy by the Indians, that they flock to it

[whenever indisposed; and the bridge over the Don being finished, is generally resorted to, not only for pleasure, but as the most convenient road to the height of Scarborough. The ground, which has been prepared for the government-house, is situated between the town and the river Don. Vessels of all sizes may be conveniently built here, and a kind of terrace or second bank, in front of the town, affords an excellent situation for a rope walk. The remains of the old French fort Torento stands a little to the *w.* of the present garrison, and the river Humber discharges itself into Lake Ontario, about two miles and a half *w.* of that: on this river and the Don are excellent mills, and all the waters abound in fish. In winter the harbour is frozen, and affords excellent ice for the amusement of northern counties, driving in trianeaus. The climate of York is temperate, and well sheltered from the *n.* winds by the high lands in the rear. The Yonge-street leads from hence to Lake Simcoe, and the Dundas-street crosses the rear of the town.

This town was captured by the enemy in the present war, April 27, 1813, the Americans being commanded by Major-general Dearborn, and Commodore Chauncey. See account of the campaign, article, UNITED STATES.

Soon after his excellency John Graves Simcoe, Esq. the first Lieutenant-governor, had taken upon him the administration of the government of the province of Upper Canada, he divided it by proclamation into districts, counties, and townships, which have been new modelled, and several others added by his excellency Francis Gore, Esq. the present Lieutenant-governor; the whole being now constituted agreeably to the following table.

Division of the Province of Upper Canada.

Districts.	County.	Townships.
Eastern	Glengary	Lancaster
		Charlottenburgh
		Kenyon
		St. Regis Indians
	Stormont	Cornwall
		Osnabruck
		Finch
		Roxburgh
	Dundas	Williamsburgh
		Matilda
		Mountain
		Winchester
	Prescott	Hawksbury
		Caledonia
		Longueiul
		Alfred
		Plantagenet
	Russell	Clarence
		Cumberland
		Gloucester
		Osgoode
		Russell
		Cambridge
Johnstown	Grenville	Edwardsburgh
		Augusta
		Wolford
		Oxford, on the Rideau
		Marlborough
		Montague
		Gower, North and South
	Leeds	Elizabeth Town
		Yonge
		Lansdown
		Leeds
		Crosby, North and South
		Bastard
		Burgess
		Elmsley
		Kitley
	Carleton	Nepean]

[Districts.	Counties.	Townships.
Midland -	Frontenac -	Howe Island
		Pittsburgh
		Wolfe Island
		Kingston
		Loughborough
		Portland
		Hinchinbroke
		Bedford
	Lenox and Addington - -	Ernest Town
		Adolphus Town
		Fredericksburgh
		Richmond
		Camden, E.
		Amherst Island
		Sheffield
	Hastings - -	Sydney
		Thurlow
		Mohawks
		Hungerford
		Huntingdon
		Rawdon
	Prince Edward	Ameliasburgh
		Hallowell
		Sophiasburgh
		Marysburgh
Newcastle	Northumberland - -	Murray
		Cramahe
		Haldimand
		Hamilton
		Alnwick
		Percy
		Seymour
	Durham - -	Hope
		Clarke
		Darlington
Home - -	E. Riding of the County of York - -	Whitby
		Pickering
		Scarborough
		York and Peninsula
		Etobicoke
		Markham
		Vaughan

Districts.	Counties.	Townships.
Home - - (*continued.*)	E. Riding of the County of York - -	King
		Whitchurch
		Uxbridge
		Gwillimbury, E.
		Ditto, W.
		Ditto, N.
		Scott
	W. Riding of the County of York - -	Toronto
		Trafalgar
		Nelson
		Flamborough, E.
		Ditto, W.
		Beverly
		Six Nation Lands, *n.* of Dundas Street
		Reserved lands
		Crown lands and Church lands
London -	Norfolk - -	Rainham
		Walpole
		Woodhouse
		Charlotteville
		Walsingham
		Houghton
		Middleton
		Windham
		Townsend
		Turkey Point and Promontory of Long Point
	Oxford - -	Burford, and Gore of Burford
		Norwich
		Dereham
		Oxford on Thames
		Blandford
		Blenheim
	Middlesex -	London
		Westminster
		Southwold
		Dorchester
		Yarmouth
		Dunwich
		Aldborough
		Delaware
		Malahide
		Bayham]

[Districts.	Counties.	Townships.
Niagara -	Lincoln - -	Barton
		Ancaster
		Glanford
		Saltfleet
		Binbrook
		Grimsby
		Caistor
		Clinton
		Louth
		Grantham
		Niagara
		Stamford
		Thorold
		Pelham
		Gainsborough
		Wainfleet
		Crowland
		Willoughby
		Bertie
		Humberstone
	Haldimand -	Six Nation's land, *s.* of Dundas Street

Districts.	Counties.	Townships.
Western -	Kent - - -	Dover
		Chatham
		Camden, W.
		Oxford
		Howard
		Harwich
		Raleigh
		Romney
		Tilbury, E. & W.
		Shawanees
	Essex - - -	Mersea
		Gosfield
		Colchester
		Malden
		Sandwich and Town
		Amherstburgh (Garrison)
		Maidstone
		Rochester

The counties send 25 representatives to the provincial parliament, who, with a legislative council, are called together once every year. The representatives are elected for four years, to serve in the Assembly, unless the parliament be sooner dissolved by the person administering the government.]

A TABLE

[A TABLE, shewing the direct Distances between the principal Places, &c. in Upper Canada; and their Bearings, nearly, by the Magnet, from York, on Lake Ontario.

Burlington Bay.																								
Carleton Island.																								183
Chatham.																							315	125
Detroit.																						47	362	170
Genesee River.																					278	230	95	109
Grand River, where it intersects Dundas-street.																				139	150	104	212	22
Head of Lake Ontario.																			30	109	179	133	183	$\frac{1}{16}$
Hungry Bay.																		178	208	82	355	308	20	178
Kingston.																	28	175	204	92	354	308	11	175
Lake Simcoe.																151	163	62	80	120	221	180	161	62
Lake St. Clair.															194	321	321	148	119	244	9	14	329	140
London.														73	121	252	256	78	49	173	102	59	261	70
Long Point, on Lake Erie.													68	117	115	210	208	54	48	129	151	103	217	54
Matchedash, or Gloucester, on Lake Huron.												162	149	218	35	180	198	110	118	170	239	204	192	110
Mohawk Village, Grand River.											120	43	52	121	80	201	204	27	6	133	153	107	210	19
Mouth of the Grand River, or Ouse.										38	140	32	83	144	89	180	179	39	44	101	178	131	187	30
Mouth of the Thames, or La Tranche.									144	121	218	117	73	—	193	321	321	148	119	244	34	14	129	140
Niagara.								178	39	61	120	70	111	178	67	144	145	36	65	74	210	164	150	36
Oswegatchie, or Johnstown.							202	381	239	260	224	270	310	381	204	60	70	232	263	150	412	367	54	232
Oswego.						109	125	296	154	183	202	180	233	296	160	63	41	160	190	52	330	282	60	160
Oxford on the Thames.				210	283	86	99	60	26	129	55	28	99	96	225	229	51	22	159	130	85	233	43	
Presqu'Isle de Quinté.			165	76	120	85	260	121	140	130	153	191	260	90	62	72	113	144	60	292	247	72	113	
Sodus.		71	190	24	130	105	275	133	165	195	159	215	276	146	80	61	141	170	32	309	262	79	141	
	125	85	80	140	205	30	73	54	57	90	83	107	178	38	149	155	33	60	95	209	164	157	33	
	East-south-east	East by north	West-south-west	East by south $\frac{1}{4}$ south	East by north $\frac{1}{4}$ north	South-south-east $\frac{1}{4}$ east	South-west and by west $\frac{1}{4}$ west.	South and by west $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	South-west and by west	North and by west $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	South-south-west $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	West-south-west	South-west and by west $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	North $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	East and by north	East	South-west.	South-west and by west $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	South-east and by east $\frac{1}{2}$ east.	South-west and by west $\frac{3}{4}$ west.	South-west and by west $\frac{1}{2}$ west.	East $\frac{3}{4}$ north	South-westerly

The distance in miles between two places is found in the squares, at the intersection of the lines drawn both ways from those places; and the bearings of each place from York is found at the bottom of each column of squares respectively, as for example:—

From Oswegatchie to Detroit is 412 miles, the former bearing east by north $\frac{1}{4}$ north, the latter south-west and west $\frac{3}{4}$ west, from York.

From London to York is 107 miles, on a course west-south-west.]

[Sketch of the Length and Circumference of the following Lakes in Upper Canada, by Estimation.

Lakes.	Greatest length in miles.	Circumference following the shore.
Erie	200	610
George	25	58
Huron	250	1100
Michigan	260	945
Ontario	160	450
St. Clair	30	100
Superior	410	1525

Table of Latitudes and Longitudes, from the information hitherto received.

Places.	N. Latitude.			W. Longitude.		
	Deg.	Min.	Sec.	Deg.	Min.	Sec.
Detroit	42	14	0	82	33	
Ditto, River's Mouth	41	52				
Erie Fort	42	53	17			
Grand Remou	44	50				
Kingston	44	8	0	75	41	
Landguard	42	7	15			
Long Point carrying place	41	39	21			
Michilimackinac	45	48	34			
Michigan Lake S. end	41	8				
Manitou Islands	44	46				
Niagara	43	15	47	78	25	
Oswego	43	20	0	75	43	
Ontario, Lake, head of,	43	47	3			
St. Regis	45					
York	43	35				

Sketch of the Islands in the following Lakes of Upper Canada.

Lakes.	Islands.
Lake Erie	Bass Islands
	Isle Bois Blanc
	Isle Celerou
	Cunningham's Island
	East Sister
	Grosse Island
	Middle Island
	Middle Sister
	St. George's Island
	Ship Island
	Turtle Island
	West Sister
Lake Huron	La Cloche
	Duck Islands
	Flat Islands
	Grosse Isle
	Isle Traverse
	Manitou Islands
	Michilimackinac
	Prince William's Island
	St. Joseph's Island
Lake Ontario	Amherst Island
	Isle la Barque
	Carleton Island
	Isle de Petit Cataraqui
	Cedar Island
	Isle Cauchois
	Isle au Cochan
	Isle du Chêne
	Duck Islands
	Duck Islands
	Isle la Force, or la Forté
	Isle au Forêt
	Gage Island
	Grand Isle
	Gull Island
	Howe Island
	Nicholas Island
	Orphan Island
	Isle de Quinté
	Isle Tonti
	Petite Isle Tonti
	Isle aux Tourtes
	Wolfe Island
	Wapoose Island
Lake St. Clair	Island Chenal Ecarté
	Harsen's Island
	Hay Island
	Peach Island
	Thompson's Island
Lake Superior	Isle Grange
	Isle de Minatte
	Michipicoten
	Isle Montreal
	Patié Island
	Isles aux Rables
	White Fish Island.]

[York, a division of territory forming the township of the above county of its name, lying to the *w.* of Scarborough, having the river Humber for its *w.* limit: its front is principally occupied by a long sandy beach, which forms the harbour. The rest of the township in front is open to Lake Ontario.]

[York, a river of Virginia, which takes its rise near the Blue Ridge, and empties into the Chesapeak, a little to the *s.* of Mobjack Bay. At York Town it affords the best harbour in the State, which will admit vessels of the largest size. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, close under which the vessels may ride. It has four fathoms water at high tide, for 20 miles above York, to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel only 75 fathoms, passing under a very high bank. At the confluence of Pamunky and Mattapony it has but three fathoms depth, which continues up Pamunky to Cumberland, where the width is 100 yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazer's Ferry, where it becomes 28½ fathoms deep, and holds that about five miles.]

[York, a river of York County, district of Maine, which runs up seven or eight miles, and affords a tolerable harbour for vessels under 200 tons. The rocks, however, render it somewhat difficult and hazardous for strangers.]

[York Bay is nine miles long and four broad, and spreads to the *s.* before the city of New York. It is formed by the confluence of East and and Hudson's Rivers, and embosoms several small islands, of which Governor's Island is the principal. It communicates with the ocean through the Narrows, between Staten and Long Islands, which are scarcely two miles wide. The passage up to New York, from Sandy Hook, the point of land that extends furthest into the sea, is safe, and not above 20 miles in length. The common navigation is between the *e.* and *w.* banks, in about 22 feet water. The light-house at Sandy Hook is in lat. 40° 28′ *n.* and long. 74° 2′ *w.*]

[York Fort, on the *s. w.* shore of Hudson's Bay, at the mouth of Port Nelson River, is 160 miles *w.* of Severn House. Lat. 57° 1′ 51″ *n.* Long. 92° 46′ 40″ *w.*]

[York Harbour lies within the elbow formed by S. Head, in the Bay of Islands, Newfoundland Island.]

[York Island, one of the Gallipago Islands, on the coast of Peru.]

[York Isle, or Islands, lie in lat. 50° 37′ *s.* about 50 leagues from the coast of Patagonia, in S. America, and are inhabited. Trinity lies due *e.* of them, near the main land.]

[York Ledge, on the coast of the district of Maine. From York Harbour to York Ledge, the course is *s. e.* two leagues.]

[York Minster, on the *s.* coast of the island of Tierra del Fuego, is 38 miles *e. s. e.* from Gilbert Island. Lat. 55° 26′ *s.* Long. 70° *w.*]

[York Road, or Bay, in the Straits of Magellan, in S. America, is 10 miles from Cape Cross Tide. Lat. 53° 39′ *s.* Long. 73° 52′.]

[York Town, a township of New York, W. Chester County, bounded *w.* by the town of Portland, and *n.* by Dutchess County. In 1796, according to the State census, there were 210 of the inhabitants electors.]

YOUANA, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Louisiana; on the shore of the river Soulahue. It is the last town of the Indians of the Chactaws nation.

YOUNG, a settlement of the island of Barbadoes, in the parish and district of St. Thomas, near the *w.* coast.

[YOUNG FREDERICK'S Island, on the *n. w.* coast of N. America, divides Port Ingraham. See Port Ingraham.]

[YPANE, or Ipane, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Paraguay; situate on the *e.* bank of the Paraguay, about eight miles *s. e.* from Asuncion; in lat. 25° 27′ 44″ *s.* and long. 57° 33′ 15″ *e.*]

[YQUAMANDIZU, a parish of the province and government of Paraguay; in lat. 24° 6′ 12″ *s.* and long. 56° 58′ 29″ *w.*]

[YSIDRO, S. or Isidro, a parish of the province and government of Buenos Ayres; situate on the shore of La Plata, about 15 miles *n.* of Buenos Ayres. Lat. 34° 28′ *s.* Long. 58° 23′ 10″ *w.*]

[YTA, or Ita, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Paraguay; situate a little from the *e.* bank of the Paraguay, about 20 miles *s. e.* from Asuncion. Lat. 25° 30′ 30″ *s.* and long. 57° 25′ 2″ *w.*]

[YTANGUA, a parish of the province and government of Paraguay; in lat. 25° 24′ 44″ *s.* and long. 57° 24′ 6″ *w.*]

[YTAPE, or Itape, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Paraguay; situate on the road from Asuncion to Villa Rica, and about eight miles *w.* from the latter; in lat. 25° 52′ *s.* and long. 56° 29′ 49″ *w.*]

[YTAPUA, or Itapua, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Paraguay;

situate on the *n.* bank of the Paraná, about five miles *n. w.* from Candelario; in lat. 27° 20′ 16″ *s.* and long. 55° 52′ 59″ *w.*]

[YTATY, or ITATI, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Buenos Ayres; situate on the Paraná, about 20 miles *n. e.* of Corrientes. Lat. 27° 17′ *s.* Long. 58° 11′ 38″ *w.*]

YUANES, a barbarous nation of Indians of the province and government of Tucumán in Peru. They dwell to the *n.* of the city of Cordoba, and are bounded by this *rhumb* by the nation of the Frentones, *e.* by the river Paraguay, *w.* by the Salado, and *s.* by the nation of the Abipones. Any information concerning these Indians is very scarce.

YUBAL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cuenca in the kingdom of Quito; situate at the source of the river Abenico.

YUCA, a large settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Velez, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It enjoys one of the best and most healthy climates possible, produces abundance of wheat of the best quality, also of maize, tartuffles and pulse. It has a convent of the religious of St. Domingo, and its inhabitants amount to 700 housekeepers and 60 Indians; one league from the town of Luba; 10 *n. e.* of the city of Velez, 20 *n.* of the capital, Santa Fé, and seven from Tunja.

YUCA, a small river of the island of St. Domingo; it rises very near the *s.* coast, runs *s.* and enters the sea between the capital and the point of Cancedo.

YUCAL, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; on the shore of the Rio Grande de la Magdalena.

YUCAR, a settlement of the province and government of Santa Marta in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, near the coast.

YUCATHAN, or YUCATAN, a province and government of the kingdom of Guatemala in N. America. It is a peninsula, surrounded on three sides by the sea, on the *e.* by the Gulf of Guanajos, or of Honduras, and it is in this part 130 leagues, as far as the island of Cozumel; on the *n.* it is washed by the sea from the aforesaid gulf to the Bay of Mexico, running along a parallel of from 22° 20′ to 21° 40′, the coast being 70 leagues long. It is bounded *s.* by the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Vera Paz, and *s. w.* by that of Tabasco. Its length is 120 leagues from *s. w.* to *n. e.*, and its breadth is 98 from *e.* to *w.* at the widest part, from the unknown point to that which is opposite the island of Cozumel.

This country was discovered by Francisco Fernandez de Cordova in 1517, and was conquered by Captain Francisco de Montejo, in 1527. It is of a very hot and moist temperature, and the territory is for the most part stony, but fertile. It has no other river throughout the whole of it than that of Lagartos, which is, however, very abundant. It is argued that it has many subterraneous waters, and this is pretty well proved, through certain deep chasms of stone, which they call *zenotes*, and in which water has been seen to run.

The land is plain, covered with shady trees, and abounding in honey, wax, and cotton, and of the latter they make spun and woven stuffs, which they dye of various colours, and which are highly esteemed in all Nueva España. It also produces some cochineal, and from the above productions, as well as from some Campeche-wood, and some rigging, which they manufacture, do they maintain a commerce. In its forests are excellent sorts of woods, of which some ships have been built; and one sort of these woods, called *habin*, is so hard that it is impossible to drive a nail into without first boring a hole. Here are many wild beasts, such as tigers and leopards; also snakes and venomous insects, and a species of spider, which the Indians call ham, since, whenever a person is bitten by it, the excruciating pain he suffers causes him to cry out this word, and this he continues doing till he dies, no remedy ever having been found against its fatal influence. Both sheep and neat cattle are scarce in this province, through want of water and pastures; but here are abundance of swine, as well as of all kinds of fruit of a warm climate. On the sea-coasts is found much amber, and an inhabitant, by name Fernando Landeros, picked up a piece which weighed seven *arrobas*.

[According to the Guia de Forasteros (Foreigner's Guide) published in Spain in 1802, the number of regular troops in this province, amounted to 1,079.

In Yucatan the native Indians were circumcised, and yet gross idolaters, but curious workmen in carving and adorning their images. They had in their houses images made like bears, which they worshipped as their household gods, with singing and incense. They caused boys to answer the people's petitions from hollow images, as if God had spoken to them. When they wanted rain, or were in any danger, they had their processions and pilgrimages to these idols. In Nigaragua they worshipped the sun and divers

idols. All their priests, except confessors, married. The ordering of the sacrifices, and their numbers, depended merely on the priests, who used to go about the captives three times, singing mournfully, and then with their flint knives suddenly open their breasts. They divide the body thus; the prelate hath his heart, the king his hands and feet, the person who made him captive his buttocks, and the people the rest. The heads are set on trees, under which they sacrifice men and children. They have their idolatrous processions, in which, for the honour of their idol, they wound themselves, and for the desire of future happiness, they offer themselves cheerfully for sacrifices. Whilst the priest anoints the cheeks and the mouth of the idol with blood, the others sing, and the people pray.

The priest performs the ceremony of marriage by joining the little fingers of the bridegroom and bride near a fire; but the lords are first permitted, for honour's sake, to indulge in the privileges of the bridegroom. The adulterer is beaten and the adultress is divorced. He that forceth a virgin is a slave, except he pay her dowry. But if a slave forceth his master's daughter, they are both buried alive. See *Benzo*, *P. Martyr*, and *Gomara*.]

The capital is the city of Merida.

Bishops who have presided in the province of Yucatán.

1. Don *Fr.* Juan de San Francisco, first bishop of Yucatán; of whom we know little more than that he is ranked amongst the bishops of this church.

2. Don *Fr.* Juan de la Puerta: he died in 1552, before being consecrated.

3. Don *Fr.* Francisco de Torál, of the order of San Francisco, native of Ubeda, where he took the habit. He passed over to Nueva España, through a zeal to convert the Indians, converted and baptized many, making himself perfect master of the Mexican and Polacan language. He was nominated Custodio for the General Chapter, which was celebrated at Salamanca in 1553; returned to Mexico the following year, with 34 other religious of his order, was then elected provincial, and, after fulfilling the duties of this, was presented to the bishopric of Yucatán, of which, after having refused, he was induced to take possession in 1562. He assisted at the first and second Mexican councils, in 1555 and 1565, thrice visited his bishopric, and, through weighty business, returned to Mexico, where he died in 1571.

4. Don *Fr.* Diego de Landa, native of Cifuentes in Alcarria, also a religious of the order of San Francisco: he was one of the first of those who passed over to Yucatán, and, learning the idiom of the Indians, reduced it to grammar: he laboured with incredible zeal in their instruction, destroyed many idols, and persecuted sorcerers, who, incensed against him, sought to put him to death: he then began to preach with a cross in his hand, when the infidels became immoveable, their weapons lying useless in their hands: he was next elected provincial, and went to Spain on urgent business; was nominated guardian of the convent of San Antonio de Cabrera, and thence presented to the bishopric of Yucatán. In 1572, he visited the whole of his diocese, and suffered great persecution in defending the ecclesiastical immunities. It is related of him, that in the case of a great famine, he maintained with the maize of the convent an immense number of Indians, without the store suffering any diminution: he died full of virtues, and under the imputation of sanctity, in 1579.

5. Don *Fr.* Gregorio Montalvo, of the order of St. Domingo; was professed at Salamanca in 1550, was prior of the convent of Plasencia, elected bishop of Nicaragua, and promoted to this in 1580. He celebrated a synod, thrice visited the bishopric, and assisted at the third Mexican council in 1585, giving proofs of his great erudition: he was promoted in 1587 to the bishopric of Cuzco in Peru.

6. Don *Fr.* Juan Izquierdo, of the order of San Francisco, native of the town of Huelva in the county of Niebla: he took the habit in Lima, where he was professed; and thence passed to the province of Guatemala: was several times guardian, and elected bishop of Yucatán in 1587: thrice visited the bishopric, finished the building of the beautiful cathedral in 1598, and governed with great justice and prudence until 1602, when he died.

7. Don Diego Vazquez Mercado, who, being dean of the church of Mechoacan, was presented to this mitre in 1603: he took possession the following year, was a most vigilant pastor, twice visited his diocese, and was promoted to the bishop of Manilla in 1608.

8. Don *Fr.* Gonzalo de Salazar, native of Mexico; being master in his religion, he came to Spain upon business of his province, and was elected to the bishopric of this church in 1608, of which he took possession the following year: he visited six times the whole of his bishopric, learnt the Yucatecan idiom, taught the Indians in

person their religion, extirpated idolatry, destroying more than 20,000 idols, for which he obtained the thanks of Pope Paul V.: bestowed great pains that the youth should be instructed in grammar, theology, and the Yucatecan tongue; assisted frequently at the divine offices, performing the several duties for 52 years successively, without ever being ill; and, although 76 years of age, he kept the days of obligation; was very charitable, and, in a great famine, sustained, by his own income, more than 4000 poor people: he was extremely devoted to the Holy Virgin, adorned his church with precious ornaments and vases, and, full of years and good works, he died in 1636.

9. Don Juan Alonso de Ocón, native of Redál in la Rioja; collegiate in the college of San Ildefonso of Alcalá, where he graduated as doctor in theology, and was professor of arts, curate of the parish of Elechosa in the archbishopric of Toledo, and afterwards of the parish of Santa Cruz de Madrid, which he left for the bishopric of this church in 1638, taking possession of it the following year: he visited all his dictrict, confirming more than 68,000 souls, was rigorous in the examination of the ecclesiastics, and was promoted to the bishopric of Cuzco in 1642.

10. Don Andres Fernandez de Ipenza, native of the town of Arnedo in la Rioja, trilingual collegiate of Alcalá: he there studied canons, and graduated as doctor in the university of Avila; passed to Mexico as familiar to the archbishop of Don Francisco Manso, by whom he was named provisor of the Indians, and, when the same archbishop returned to Cartagena, he remained governor of the archbishopric, and, afterwards having arrived at Madrid, he was made inquisitor of Toledo, and afterwards bishop of Yucatán, in 1643; but he died that year before he left Toledo.

11. Don Marcos de Torres y Rueda, native of the town of Almazán: he studied at Osma, and graduated as doctor in theology: he was elected bishop of Yucatán in 1646; was consecrated in la Puebla de los Angeles, by the Señor Palafox, and took possession the following year; and, through the discords existing between the aforesaid venerable Palafox and the Viceroy, the Count of Salvatierra, he was nominated viceroy and president of the audience of Mexico, and died in 1649.

12. Don *Fr.* Domingo de Villa Escusa Ramirez de Arellano, of the order of San Geronimo; collegiate in the college of S. Lorenzo el Real, where he read moral theology ten years: was visitor-general of the order, and afterwards general of the same; elected bishop of Chiapa, which church he governed ten years, passing from this to Yucatán in 1651: he was received with the greatest joy through the fame of his virtue and charity, was truly humble and poor in spirit, though without losing his authority: he died, causing universal regret, in 1652.

13. Don Lorenzo de Orta, elected bishop of this church, but who died immediately after.

14. Don *Fr.* Luis de Cifuentes y Sotomayor, native of Sevilla: he took the habit of St. Dominique in Mexico; was elected bishop of Yucatán in 1657, of which office he took possession in 1659: he visited his diocese several times, was most zealous of divine worship, and gave to his church valuable ornaments of gold and silver, endowed the chapel of Santo Christo of Ichmul, but caused the same to be transferred from that settlement, on account of its having been burnt, together with the church, and nothing having been saved but the image of our Saviour: he died in 1676.

15. Don Juan de Escalante Turcios y Mendoza, who obtained various prebendaries in this church of Yucatán, where also he was commissary of crusade, provisor and vicar-general of the bishopric, and, being dean, was elected archbishop of St. Domingo in 1671, and in 1676 promoted to Yucatán: he visited all the bishopric, and, after the visitation of Tabasco, died in the settlement of Umán in 1681.

16. Don Juan Cano Sandoval, native of the city of Mexico, doctor in sacred canons, canonical doctor of the church of Mechoacán, and afterwards provisor of Indians, and provisor and vicar-general of the bishopric of Mexico, elected bishop of Yucatán in 1682, of which office he took possession the following year: he was extremely charitable and religious, and died in 1695.

17. Don *Fr.* Antonio de Arriaga y Agüero, of the order of San Augustin, who was rector of the college of Doña Maria of Arragon in Madrid; presented through his literature and exemplary life to this church, in 1696: he went to be consecrated at la Puebla de los Angeles, and, before he arrived at his church, died in the town of Carrion, in 1698.

18. Don *Fr.* de los Reyes Rios de la Madrid, native of Sevilla, and monk of the order of St. Benedict: he obtained in his religion the employs of master, preacher-general, doctor in theology, and poser in the university of Oviedo: he was preacher to King Charles II. and was elected bishop of Honduras, having been promoted before

he embarked for the bishopric of Yucatán, in 1700: he twice visited his diocese, and in his time was finished the conquest of the province of Petén: he was a most spirited defender of the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and died in 1714.

19. Don Juan Gomez de Parada: he was born at Compostela, of the bishopric of Guadalaxara and kingdom of Nueva Galicia, was collegiate in the old college of San Ildefonso, and afterward in that of Santa Maria de Todos los Santos of Mexico: he took the degree of doctor in the university of Salamanca, where also he read philosophy three years; was prebend of the metropolitan of Mexico, and was presented to the bishopric of Yucatán in 1715, of which he took possession the following year; he celebrated a diocesan synod, in which he laboured with indefatigable zeal, both for the reform of the ecclesiastical and secular estates, and for the relief of the Indians, proving himself to them a perfect father; amongst these he made new regulations, by order of the king, and was much interested in the promotion of the ecclesiastics, maintained the nuns in the famine of 1726, and was promoted to the bishopric of Guatemala in 1728.

20. Don Juan Ignacio de Castorena y Ursua, native of Zacatecas in the kingdom of Nueva Galicia, collegiate in the college of San Ildefonso of Mexico, provisor of Indians in that bishopric, and commissary-general of crusade in Nueva España: he had various prebendaries in the church of Mexico, and was presented to this bishopric in 1729: manifested, during the whole time of his government, his fatherly zeal, and died in 1733.

21. Don Francisco Pablo Matos Coronado, native of the city of Canarias: he studied philosophy and grammar in the convent of St. Domingo, went through a course of canons in the university of Sevilla, from whence he passed to Salamanca, received various prebendaries in the cathedral of Canarias, and was promoted to the archdeaconry, and from thence to the bishopric of Yucatán in 1734; took possession in 1736, and visited the whole of his bishopric: was noted for his literature, governed with great prudence and zeal, and was promoted to the bishopric of Mechoacán in 1741.

22. Don *Fr.* Mateo de Zamora y Pinagos, native of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada: he there took the habit of San Francisco, was theological doctor in the university of Santa Fé, procurator general in the courts of Madrid and Rome, *calificador* of the holy office, and elected bishop of Yucatán in 1741, of which he took possession in 1743: visited the whole of the diocese, and died in the town of Valladolid in 1744.

23. Don *Fr.* Francisco de San Buenaventura Texada Diez de Velasco, of the order of San Francisco, native of Sevilla, auxiliar to the bishop of Cuba, with the title of Tricali, presented to this bishopric of Yucatán in 1746: he twice visited the diocese, without missing any settlement, erected the Tridentine college, repaired many parish churches, and in the convent of San Pablo de la Breña of his province of Andalucia, built at his own cost a house of recluses for bad women: he was promoted to the church of Guadalaxara in Nueva Galicia in 1752.

24. Don Juan Joseph de Eguiara y Eguren, native of Mexico: he studied in that university, where he took the degree of doctor in theology, was professor of philosophy, consultor of the holy office of the inquisition, and author of various works, and amongst others of the first volume of the Mexican bible; was elected bishop of Yucatán in 1751, but renounced this dignity to the general regret of those who were acquainted with his virtue and learning.

25. Don *Fr.* Ignacio Padilla y Estrada, native of Mexico: he took the habit of St. Augustin, was doctor in his university, and in his religion professor of philosophy and theology, visitor of the convents of Guadalaxara and Havana, arithmetician and procurator-general of the province of Jesus in the courts of Madrid and Rome, elected archbishop of St. Domingo, where he governed till 1752, and from whence he was promoted to this church: he was a most zealous defender of the dignity, was extremely beneficent, and succoured by his liberality the convent of nuns of La Concepcion, and died in 1760.

26. Don *Fr.* Antonio Alcalde, of the order of St. Domingo, native of the town of Zigales in the bishopric of Valladolid: he was lecturer of arts, master of the students, and lecturer of theology, 26 years: he was nominated prior of the convent of Zamora, and afterwards of Valverde, where he remained nine years, and afterwards of Segovia, although he did not fill this office, as having been presented by the King to the bishopric of Yucatán in 1761: he was consecrated at Cartagena of the Indies, and took possession in 1763, and promoted to Guadalaxara in 1773.

27. Don Diego Peredo.

28. Don *Fr.* Juan Manuel de Vargas y Rivera, of the order of Nuestra Señora de La Merced, native of Lima, *comendador* of the convent of Panama in the kingdom of Tierra Firme: he went to Spain, where he was honoured with the degree

of father of the province, and presented to the bishopric of Chiapa, from whence he was promoted to this of Yucatán in 1764, although he died before he took possession.

29. Don Antonio Caballero y Gongora, promoted to the bishopric of Santa Fé in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada in 1777.

30. Don *Fr.* Luis de Piña y Mazo, of the order of San Benito.

YUCAY, Santiago de, a settlement of the province of Urubamba in Peru. It has a convent of religious recoletans of San Francisco, is situate in a pleasant, fertile, and spacious valley, of a benign temperature, and abounding in all kinds of vegetable productions. In this settlement died the Prince Sayri Tupac Inca, after a three years retirement: he had acquired the title of Bautismo Don Diego Inca, and was the last monarch of Peru, having renounced his empire and his rights to the king of Spain: he was son of Manco Inca, and nephew of the Emperor Huascar Inca.

[YUCUATL, the Indian name of Nootka Island; which see.]

YUCUL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Canchas.

YUCUNDUCHE, Santiago de, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Nochiztlan in Nueva España. It contains 75 families of Indians, applied to the cultivation and commerce of cotton and cochineal. Two leagues *n.* of its capital.

YUECHI, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta in Nueva España. It contains 61 families of Indians, and is four leagues *s.* of its capital.

YUHUARI, a river of the province and country of Las Amazonas, which runs nearly due *n.* in the territory of the Omaguas Indians, and enters the river of Las Amazonas.

YUY, a river of the province and country and government of Buenos Ayres, which runs from *s. e.* to *n. w.* and enters the Uruguay, opposite the settlement of the missions called Santa Maria. On its shores the Indians martyred the Fathers Roque Gonzalez de Santa Cruz, Alonzo Rodriguez, and Juan del Castillo, of the order of the Jesuits, in 1628.

YUINEIMA, a river of the province and government of Paraguay, which runs *e.* collecting the waters of many other rivers, and enters by the *w.* side into the Grande del Paraná.

YUIPA, a small river of the same province and government as the former. It runs to *n. n. w.* and enters the Uruguay, between those of Aguas and Bajú.

[YUISPIN, or Jesus Nazareno, a settlement of Indians of the province and government of Buenos Ayres; situate about 60 miles to the *s. w.* of San Lucia, on a branch of the Parana, in lat. 29° 43′ 30″ *s.* long. 60° 20′ 30″ *w.*]

YULUC, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Loxa in the kingdom of Quito.

YUMA, an island of the N. Sea, one of the Lucayas, called also Exuma. It was discovered by Christopher Columbus. It lies *n.* of the island of Cuba, and *s.* of that of San Salvador; is 22 leagues long and seven wide, and inhabited by Caribee Indians.

YUMBA, Bay of, on the *s.* coast of the island of St. Domingo, between the island of Saona and the point of Espada.

YUMBEL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Itala in the kingdom of Chile. It is the frontier of the Araucanos Indians, and on that account has a fort to defend the limits. This fort was besieged by those barbarians in 1743, but they were obliged to desist from their attempt with great loss.

YUMBO, a settlement of the province and government of Popayán, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada.

YUME, a river of the province and country of Las Amazonas. It runs *e.* and enters the Marañon.

YUMETO, an island of the N. Sea, one of the Lucayas, discovered by Christopher Columbus, and situate under the tropic, to the *n.* of the island of Cuba. It is 15 leagues long, and inhabited by Caribee Indians.

YUNA, a large river of St. Domingo, which rises in the mountains of the centre of the island, runs to *n. n. e.* and near the town of Cotuy turns its course to *s. s. e.* and enters the sea in the Bay of Samaná, forming several islands at its mouth.

YUNDUZA, Santa Cruz de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tepozcolula in Nueva España. It contains 116 families of Indians, who live by the cultivation of wheat, maize, and French-beans. It is of a cold temperature, and is 11 leagues *e.* by *s.* of its capital.

YUNGA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Conchucos in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of San Marcos.

YUNGAI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huailas, in the same kingdom as the former. It is large and populous, contains

two parishes, and in its vicinity, in a ravine, are to be seen the ruins of another settlement, called Ancas, which contained about 1,500 inhabitants, all of whom perished by a sudden inundation, from the irruption of a great mountain of snow, occasioned by an earthquake which took place here on January 6, 1725.

YUNGAS, a race of people who live retired to the *n. e.* of the province and government of Guayaquil, in the lands which are bounded by the *s. w.* by the province of Latacunga in the kingdom of Quito, and toward Angamarca. They are *Mustees*, Mulattoes, and other casts. They sow and cultivate tobacco, cotton, and *cacao;* are scattered, and independent of all government and subjection, and also amongst them are some Indians of the ancient nation of the Yungas, from whom they have taken their name. They are half Christians, but have neither instruction or parish. They are also called the Colorados.

YUNGUI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Iguari.

YUNGUYO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Omasuyos in the same kingdom as the former; situate in the peninsula of Copacavana of the great lake Titicaca.

YUNGUI, a settlement of the province and government of Chucuito in the same kingdom as the former; situate *e.* of the town of Moquehua.

YUNTA, a settlement of the province and government of Tucumán in Peru; situate in the barren tract of the salines to the *n.* of the settlement of Ambargasta.

YUPAN, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Conchucos in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Llapo.

YUPANA, a small river of the province and government of Cumana; which rises in the *sierra* of Imataca, runs *s.* and enters the Cuyuni by the *n.* side.

YUPURA.—See Caqueta.

YUQUI, a river of the province and government of Paraguay. It is small, and enters the river of this name, nearly opposite the Yabebiri, which comes from Chaco.

YUQUIPA, Santa ana de, a settlement of the province and government of Quixos and Macas, in the kingdom of Quito.

YURA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Collahuas in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Llota. It has, at a league's distance, a mountain of lime-stone, which article they prepare in ovens, and carry for sale to various parts, especially to Arequipa, which is seven leagues off.

YURACARES, a river of the province and government of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, in Peru. It rises in the *cordillera,* from various streams which unite, runs *n.* and enters the Marmoré, in the country of the Indians, from whence it takes its name.

YURANI, a river of the province and government of Guayana; which rises from a lake in the mountains of the *e.* coast, runs from *n.* to *s.* and enters the river Cuyuni just before this joins the sea.

YURAYACO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chancay in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Canchas.

YURI, a small river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia. It rises in the *sierra* of Maiguatida; runs *e.* and enters the Arebato.

YURIMA, a river of the province and *corregimiento* of Pomabamba in Peru. It runs *n.* and turning its course to *e.* forming an S. enters into the large river Beni.

YURIMAGUAS, a barbarous nation of Indians, inhabiting the woods *s.* of the Marañon, in the missions of Mainas, which were held by the Jesuits. There is a settlement of these Indians reduced to the Catholic faith by those missionaries, and named Nuestra Señora de las Nieves de los Yurimaguas. This settlement is on the shore of the river Guallaga.

YURIMOS, a barbarous nation of Indians, but little known, inhabiting the woods *n.* of the river Iza or Putumayu.

YURIRAPUNDARO, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Zelaya, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It contains 485 families of Indians, and a convent of the religious of San Agustin, one of the most magnificent buildings in the whole kingdom: 15 leagues *s. w.* of its capital, and is generally called Yurira for brevity.

YURMASICA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Chachapoyas in Peru.

YURNA, a territory and country of great extent, occupied formerly by the nation of the Aguas Indians, on the *s.* shore of the river Marañon. At present nothing is known but its name.

YURU, Besni, or Muria. A river of the province and country of las Amazonas, according to Mr. Bellin. It runs nearly from *w.* to *e.* and enters the Rio Negro.

YURUA, a large river of the kingdom of Peru; the origin of which is little known, as the river runs through the countries of infidel Indians, until it enters the Marañon. The geo-

grapher, Don Juan de la Cruz, quoting Mr. Bowel asserts, that it is the Yurba that is the same as the Amarumaya, and not the Yurua, as according to the father Manuel Rodriguez in his history of the Marañon, where he makes its source in the mountains of the Andes of Cuchoa, and says, that after running many leagues to *n.* it turns *e.* and afterwards returns to its first course; and, in the territory and country of the Curianis Indians, enters the Marañon.

YURUA, a small island of the coast of Brasil, opposite that of Marajo, between those of Machiana and Alitatis.

YURUANI, a small river of the province and colony of Surinam, belonging to the Dutch. It is one of those which enter the Caroni by the *n.* side.

YURUANI, another, also small, of the same province. It runs *e.* and enters the Caura above the rapid stream of the Chapara.

YURUARIO, a river of the province and government of Guayana or Nueva Andalucia. It rises from a lake which is in the mountains to the *e.*: it runs from *n.* to *s.* and enters the Curguni, just before this joins the sea.

YURUARIO, a settlement of the same province; a *reduccion* of Indians by the Capuchin Fathers, situate on the shore of the former river.

YURUBASI, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas; which rises *n.* of the lake Cumapi, and from a waste-water of the arm of the same lake. It runs *e.* and enters the river Negro, opposite one of the arms of the river Parima.

YURUBECHI, or MARIA, a river of the same province and country as the former, in the district possessed by the Portuguese. It rises in the territory of the Orelludos Indians, runs *e.* inclining to *s. e.* for many leagues, and enters, very abundantly, into the Negro, opposite the mouth of the Cababury. Mr. de la Condamine calls it Yurubesa, and says, that it enters the aforesaid in lat. 42′ *s.*

YURUHA, a fertile and beautiful valley of the province and *corregimiento* of Maule, in the kingdom of Chile.

YURUPA, a large and very abundant river of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is in its origin an arm of the Caquetá, which, increasing itself as it goes along, becomes so large from collecting the waters of other rivers, as, upon entering the Marañon, to have been frequently mistaken for the Orinoco.

YURUSNIES, a barbarous nation of Indians, who dwell *n.* of the river Marañon: always united with the nations of the Iquitos, the Zapatoas, and the Abixiras, to make war against the Chevelos. It is ferocious though not numerous.

YUTAI, or YETAU, or YATA, [known also in the English maps by the name of Jutay,] a large and most abundant river of the kingdom of Peru, [which rises from the large lake of Roguaguado, which is about 180 miles *e. n. e.* of Cuzco, runs *n.*, and enters the Marañon, or Amazonas, near the settlements of Traquetamha, by the *s.* part, in lat. 2° 40′ *s.*] It is much renowned for its riches, and for the multitude of nations which inhabit its shores; such as the Tipunas, Guanatus, Ozuanas, Moruas, Nonas, Conomomas, Marianas, and Omaguas, which are those who dwell nearest to Peru. These nations wear attached to their ears and nostrils large pieces of gold. This was, according to the Father Acuña, the province, to the discovery of which Pedro de Ursua went out by order of the viceroy, the Marquis of Cañete, but which he did not find from having made his entrance by a branch of this river, which runs some leagues below; so that when he entered the Marañon, these nations of Indians lay higher up, and it was impossible for him to go back to find them, owing to the impetus of the currents, according to the geographer, Don Juan de la Cruz. Mr. De Lisle names this river Otapari.

YUTAI, a settlement of the province and government of Cuenca, in the kingdom of Quito; situate on the shore of the river Abenico.

YUTI, a settlement of the province and government of Paraguay, situate on the shore of the Tebiquariguaza: [on the road from Villa Rica to Candelaria; and about 50 miles from the former: in lat. 26° 35′ 56″ *s.*; long. 56° 16′ 48″ *w.*]

YUYAPARI. See ORINOCO.

YWAPOY, a river of the province and government of Guayana, in the part belonging to the Dutch.

YWASEE, a settlement of Indians of the province and colony of N. Carolina, situate on the shore of the river Euphasee.

YZA, a territory or extensive country of the nation of Indians, called the Moscas or Muiscas, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, in the *e.* part of Bogota, and *s. e.* of Tundama. It was discovered and entered pacifically by Juan de St. Martin, in 1537: it has a settlement of its name.

YZA, a river. See PUTUMAYO.

YZAUANDE. See ISQUANDE.

Z.

ZABALETAS, a settlement of the province and government of Antioquia, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate near the coast of the S. Sea, on the shore of the river of Buenaventura.

ZACAN, Santa Ana de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Cordoba, in Nueva España. It contains 333 families of Indians, five of Spaniards, and four of *Mustees:* four leagues *n. n. w.* of its capital.

ZACANHUALIN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Atengo, and *alcaldía mayor* of Chilapa, in Nueva España: six leagues *w.* of its head settlement.

ZACAPALA, a settlement of the head settlement and *alcaldía mayor* of Antlán, in Nueva España. It contains 20 families of Indians, and is three leagues *s. w.* of its head settlement.

ZACAPO, Santa Ana de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tirindaro and *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacan, situate in a spacious plain of a mild temperature. In its vicinity, towards the *n.* is a spring of water, which forms a small river, and runs *e.* and enters a lake. It has in it a convent of the religious of San Francisco. Its population is composed of 80 families of Indians, applied to the cultivation of the land, including those who inhabit five *ranchos* in its district: 12 leagues *n.* of its capital.

ZACAPUASTLA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of San Juan de los Llanos in Nueva España. It contains 500 families of Indians, and 40 of Spaniards, Mulattoes, and *Mustees*, including those of the wards of its district, who are occupied in agriculture: seven leagues *n. w.* of its capital.

ZACAPUATO, a small settlement of the head settlement of the district of Cuzamala, and *alcaldía mayor* of Azuchitlan in Nueva España: on the shore of the river, which they call de los Bejucos, the waters of which diminish in the summer-time, though in the winter they swell to such a size as to be extremely difficult and dangerous to pass. The settlement is situate half a league from the high road; is of a hot and dry temperature, and consequently barren in vegetable productions. In its vicinity is a large estate, in which the inhabitants are employed as labourers, and at the distance of four leagues is a mineral of silver, called Alva de Liste; which, although it has fallen into some decay, from the little metal that it yields, is still worked. Near to the settlement is a sugar-engine, and some *ranchos*, in which are bred some large cattle, this being the chief branch of commerce. In the aforesaid places, and in the settlement, dwell 14 families of Spaniards, 6 of *Mustees*, 20 of Mulattoes, and 34 of Indians.

ZACAPULA, a settlement of the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZACATA, a settlement and *asiento* of silver mines of the province and government of Chuquito in Peru, annexed to the curacy of Juli. In its district are two chapels at two salines, by which the whole of the province is supplied.

ZACATECAS, a province and *alcaldía mayor* of the kingdom of Nueva Galicia and bishopric of Guadalaxara; bounded *e.* by the province of Panuco; *w.* by that of Chiametlan; *n.* by the kingdom of Nueva Vizcaya; *s.* by the province of Guadalaxara; *s. w.* by that of Xalisco; *n. w.* by that of Culiacan. It is situate in the tropic of Cancer, and is in length upwards of 100 leagues from *e.* to *w.* and 55 in width at the broadest part, narrowing very much at other parts; [but, according to the most recent information, it is 210 miles long from *n.* to *s.* and 177 wide from *e.* to *w.*] The temperature is generally dry and cold; on which account, the frosts and snows are in the winter very prevalent. The territory is rugged and mountainous, but very rich, and abounding in minerals of silver, these affording its principal commerce, and being the branch by which it has been much enriched. This province is indeed one of the most opulent of N. America. In the *n.* part, which is somewhat less craggy and more temperate, there are found in abundance wheat and other vegetable productions; and in the woods are birds and animals of the chase. It is also one of the best peopled provinces of this kingdom.

[This last assertion of Alcedo is peculiarly at variance with later writers, for (says Humboldt) the province of Zacatecas is singularly ill peopled, and consists of a mountainous and arid

tract, exposed to a continual inclemency of climate. It is bounded (by his description) on the *n.* by the intendancy of Durango; on the *e.* by the intendancy of San Luis Potosi; on the *s.* by the province of Guanaxuato; and on the *w.* by that of Guadalaxara. Its greatest length is 85 leagues, and its greatest breadth from Sombrerete to the Real de Ramos, 51 leagues.

The intendancy of Zacatecas is nearly of the same extent with Switzerland, which it resembles in many geological points of view. The relative population is hardly equal to that of Sweden.

The table-land, which forms the centre of the intendancy of Zacatecas, and which rises to more than 2,000 metres, or 6,561 feet, in height, is formed of Sienites, a rock on which repose, according to the excellent observations of M. Valencia, (who wrote a very interesting description of the mines of Zacatecas) strata of primitive schistus and schistous chlorites *(chlorith-schiefer.)* The schistus forms the base of the mountains of *grauwacke* and trappish porphyry. North of the town of Zacatecas are nine small lakes abounding in muriate, and especially carbonate of soda. This carbonate, which, from the old Mexican word *tequixquilit*, goes by the name of tequesquite, is of great use in the dissolving of the muriates, and of the sulphurets of silver. M. Garces, an advocate of Zacatecas, has recently fixed the attention of his countrymen on the tequesquite, which is also to be found at Zacualco, between Valladolid and Guadalaxara, in the valley of San Francisco, near San Luis Potosi, at Acusquilco, near the mines of Bolaños, at Chorro near Durango, and in five lakes around the town of Chihuahua. The central table-land of Asia is not more rich in soda than Mexico.

The population of the intendancy of Zacatecas amounted in 1803, to 153,300 souls: the extent of surface in square leagues is 2,355, giving 65 inhabitants to the same leagues.

The most remarkable places of this intendancy are,

Zacatecas, Fresnillo, Sombrerete.

Besides these three places, the intendancy of Zacatecas contains also interesting metalliferous seams near the Sierra de Pinos, Chalchiguitec, San Miguel del Mezquitas, and Mazapil. It was this province also, which in the mine of the Veta Negra de Sombrerete, exhibited an example of the greatest wealth of any seam yet discovered in the two hemispheres.]

The capital is the city of the same name: founded in a spot, convenient from its proximity, to the rich silver mines which were discovered by Juan de Tolosa, and who was one of the first settlers of this town. It stands in a narrow pass, formed by the *serranía* of the mines; and on this account, although the town be large, since its population exceeds 5,000 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, it has only one street, the houses occupying the heights on both sides, so that although the superior edifices are lofty, the huts exceed in height the highest towers. [Averaging five persons in each family, the population has considerably increased of late years, since Humboldt states it at present at 33,000 souls.] It has a great number of nobility, who enjoy themselves in consequence of the riches of the mines, which are worked by a great number of hands. The houses are beautiful, and in their erection much care has been taken to supply the defects of the sloping ground; and the quality of these buildings differ much in proportion to the wealth of the occupiers. It has, besides the parish church, convents of the religious of San Domingo, San Francisco, San Agustin, la Merced, a college which belonged to the Jesuits, and an hospital of San Juan de Dios. It is of a cold temperature, and at one league's distance to the *e.*; it has a sumptuous temple and sanctuary of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe, and a college of Franciscan missionaries, from which went forth, the first of this order, who undertook the conversion of the Indians in the province of los Asinais, or of Texas, with the assistance of the venerable Father *Fr.* Antonio Margil de Jesus, and his companion *Fr.* Isidro Felix de Espinosa. [This city is 250 miles *n. n. w.* of Mexico, 140 *n. e.* of Guadalaxara, and 140 *s. e.* of Durango. In lat. 23° 1′ *n.* and long. 101° 35′ *w.*]

Zacatecas, a settlement and *real* of mines of the above province and *alcaldía mayor*, situate three leagues from the capital.

[ZACATULA, a small sea-port of the S. Sea, on the frontiers of the intendancy of Valladolid, between the ports of Siguantanejo and Colima.]

ZACATZAN de las Mauzanas. A jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, but very fertile, and abounding in fruit, cotton, beans, vetches, and maize, of which it gathers three crops a year. It fattens a considerable portion of swine cattle, and in these carries on a great trade, as well as in horses and small cattle, of all of which it has breeds. It is one of the best peopled jurisdictions, and contains the following settlements:

Santiago,
S. Juan Aquistla,
S. Baltazar,
Sta. Catalina Martir,
San Christoval,
Tepexcoquatro,
S. Miguel Tanaco,
San Juan Ahuacatlan,
San Francisco,
San Marcos,
Sta. Maria Ixtepec,
S. Francisco Caxhuacán,
San Juan,
San Miguel,
San Mateo,
Santa Barbara,
San Andres,
San Antonio,
San Simon,
Santa Maria,
Santo Tomas,
San Miguel,
S. Joseph Amatlán,
S. Felipe,
La Magdalena,
Santa Maria,
Olintla,
San Salvador Huehuetlán,
Santa Catarina,
San Geronimo,
Xuxupango,
Santiago Cuyay,
Santa Maria Zapotitlán,
San Francisco Tapayula,
San Pedro Comocautla,
Nacatlan,
S. Sebastian Tuctla,
Santiago Hitcilan,
Santa Maria Zomcolotla,
San Andres Teutalpán,
San Antonio,
Xolapa,
Chilaque,
S. Pedro Tlaolán,
San Andres Chincontla,
Sta. Maria Patla.

The capital is the settlement of the same name, situate in a rough *sierra;* though pleasant and fertile in fruit trees, and surrounded by five rivers, the waters of which in the winter render the access to the town difficult. It contains 300 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and 780 of Mexican Indians; produces the same fruits as those mentioned in the jurisdiction. It has a convent of San Francisco; and, at five leagues distant, some abundant copper mines, which are worked and belong to the house of the Duke of Alva: 35 leagues *e. n. e.* of Mexico.

ZACATEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Tezcoco or Tezcuco, in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 156 families of Indians, and 46 of Spaniards, *Mustees* and Mulattoes; is one short league *e.* of its capital.

Zacatepec, another settlement in the head settlement of the district of Amuzgos and *alcaldía mayor* of Xicayán in the same kingdom. It contains 97 families of Indians, who employ themselves in the cultivation and commerce of cochineal, cotton, tobacco, and *vaynilla*; 20 leagues *w.* by *n.* of its head settlement.

ZACATULA, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of the province and bishopric of Mechoacán. It is very thinly peopled, and scanty in productions; and, although it has many times had an *alcalde mayor*, it has been generally added to the town of Leon, and this, notwithstanding the great inconvenience to the administration of justice, owing to its great distance from that place. Its population consists of only three settlements, which are,

S. Agustin Coyuca, Maxaltepec, Tecpán.

The capital is the settlement of its name, of a hot temperature; inhabited by 30 families of Indians, its district being filled with mills and *ranchos*, in which dwell 100 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes; and its territory being fertilized by the large river of its name, which runs with a precipitate course to enter the S. Sea: 130 leagues *w.* by *n.* of Mexico.

ZACAZONAPA, Santa Maria de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of S. Francisco del Valle, and *alcaldía mayor* of Zultepéc, in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of San Marten. It contains 37 families of Indians, who employ themselves in cultivating fruit and seeds, which yield in abundance through the benefit of the irrigation of a river which fertilizes this territory: three leagues *s.* of the settlement of Santo Tomas.

[ZACHEO, or Desechio, a small island, eight or nine leagues to the *n. e.* by *n.* of Mona, between the island of St. Domingo and that of Puerto Rico. It is nothing more than a green mountain 800 or 1000 yards long.]

ZACOALPAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tetelzinco and *alcaldía mayor* of Tetelzinco and *alcaldía mayor* of Coautla in the same kingdom. Near it passes the river Amazina, which waters its territory, and makes it fertile and delightful, through an abundance of flowers, fruits, and vegetables. It contains 30 families of Spaniards, 12 of *Mustees*, 60 of Mulattoes, and 120 of Indians; five leagues *e.* from its head settlement.

ZACOTIPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of San Luis, of the coast and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in Nueva España. It contains 78 families of Indians, who occupy themselves in cultivating cotton, of which they make very fine woven stuffs, and by which they maintain a regular trade; two leagues and a half *s.* of its capital.

ZACUALPA, San Vicente de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Huetepéc and *alcaldía mayor* of Cuernavaca in Nueva España. It contains 46 families of Indians.

ZACUALPA, another settlement, in the head settlement of the district of Almololoyán and *alcaldía mayor* of Colima in the same kingdom. It is of a cold temperature, and situate on the skirt of the volcano of Colima.

ZACUALPA, another, of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Capabanastla in the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZACUALUCA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Theotihuacán in Nueva España; one league *w.* of its capital.

ZACACHE, SANTA ANA DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Cuilapa and *alcaldía mayor* of Quatro Villas in the same kingdom as the former. It is the largest settlement of the whole jurisdiction, contains 400 families of Indians, who employ themselves in the cultivation and trade of cochineal, seeds, fruit, and collecting coals and wood; four leagues *s. s. e.* of its head settlement.

ZAGUIN, CANO DE, a large arm of the river Orinoco, by which this communicates with the Aracoa.

ZAILA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Parinacochas in Peru.

ZALANGO, a small island of the S. Sea; situate near the coast of the province and government of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, of the district and division of la Puná.

ZAMBA, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate in the bay formed by the point of its name, and in the vicinity of which a fort has been built.

ZAMBA, the aforesaid point of the same coast, is between the city of Cartagena and the mouth of the river Grande de la Magdalena.

ZAMBA, a bay on the coast of the above province and government. It is very large, convenient, and sheltered from the winds; for which reason it is much frequented by vessels, which ordinarily enter it to take in water.

ZAMBA, an island, called GALERA DE ZAMBA, through its long and narrow figure, and forming one of the sides of the former bay.

ZAMBALLAS. See SAMBALLOS.

ZAMBIZA, a settlement of the province and kingdom of Quito, in the district of the *corregimiento* of Las cinco leguas de la Capital.

ZAMBORONDON, a settlement of the province and government of Guayaquil in the kingdom of Quito; situate on a lofty spot near the shore of the river Babahoyo. It has this name through a *zambo*, called Rondón, who was the first who established himself here. It is of a mild and healthy temperature, has a parish priest, and is in lat. 48′ *s.*

ZAMBRANO, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river Grande de la Magdalena.

ZAMORA, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of the province and bishopric of Mechoacán in Nueva España, called formerly de Xocona. It is of a very rich territory, fertile in wheat, cotton, maize, barley, and fruit of many sorts, and abounding in neat cattle and horses; all the which render it one of the best and most esteemed jurisdictions in the whole kingdom. It formerly yielded also much flax, cloves, and saffron, but the cultivation of these productions has been of late abandoned through the concomitant expenses, as well as because the inhabitants are ignorant of the mode of working those metals. Its population consists of the following settlements,

Zanguyo,	Comuato,
La Palma,	Xacona,
Coxumatlan,	San Pedro, 2,
San Pedro,	Tanganziquaro,
Puxaquerán,	Santiago,
Guarachita,	Xaripo,
Ixtlan,	Ario.

The capital is the town of its name; situate in the middle of a valley, which serves as a skirt to the *sierra* of also the same title. This valley is nearly four leagues long, and somewhat more than three wide, and is surrounded by many mountains and thick groves of trees, amongst which are several kinds of wood esteemed alike in this and in the other jurisdictions. It is of a mild and dry temperature, and the town is beautifully disposed as to its houses, streets, and public buildings. It extends a quarter of a league from *n.* to *s.* and somewhat less from *e.* to *w.* It has many gardens and orchards, which are irrigated by a fine river, called the Rio Grande, which has also several other smaller rivers, which may be called its branches; this river runs *s.* and abounds in fine fish, and the greater part of the town stands upon its banks, and on these are also many fields of wheat.

The town was founded in 1540 by order of the king, for a garrison, and as a frontier to the Chichimeca nation. Its population is composed of 300 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes; it has, besides the parish church, two convents of religious, the one of San Francisco, the other of San Juan de Dios, and in the latter are two large infirmaries. About 40 years ago there

was added to this town a ward inhabited by 30 families of Indians of the Teca nation, and which is very fertile and pleasant, and abounding in fine water, maize, French-beans, and medicinal herbs. In the vicinity of the town they count 32 estates, with their gardens and orchards; these render the country very delightful to behold; and in them assist no less than 158 families of Spaniards, 80 of *Mustees*, and 33 of Mulattoes. [Zamora is 155 miles *w. n. w.* of Mexico, in lat. 20° 2′ *n.* and long. 101° 46′ *w.*]

ZAMORA, another city, in the province and government of Jaen de Bracamoros, or Yaguarsongo, in the kingdom of Quito. It was founded by Alonso de Mercadillo, and not Pedro, as is asserted by the ex-jesuit Coleti, in 1549, between the two rivers of Yamquambi to the *e.* and that of Zamora to the *s.*; but, in 1663, its inhabitants changed its situation farther to the *w.* and on the shore of the river Zamora. It is of a hot temperature, subject to rain, and barren in vegetable productions, but abounding in gold mines, which were formerly worked and produced great wealth; from whence it became to be a large, rich and handsome town; but to day, since the labour of its mines has been abandoned, it has fallen to such decay as to be nothing but a miserable village, not deserving the name of city. It has besides the church, a very poor convent of the religious of St. Domingo, and it is still inhabited by some illustrious, though poor and much reduced families; [234 miles *s.* of Quito, and 85 *n. n. w.* of the city of Jaen, in lat. 4° 2′ *s.* and long. 78° 50′ *w.*]

ZAMORA, another city, with the addition of Nueva, in the province and government of Maracaibo and Nuevo Reyno de Granada. See MARACAIBO.

ZAMORA, a large river which takes its name from the city which it washes, in the province of Jaen in the kingdom of Quito. It collects in its course the waters of the rivers Pucú, Bombasicaro, Zabanilla, Numbixa, Yamquambi, Yarusé, Chicoasa, and others by the *n.* part; and those of Surinisa, Tabuahua, Urumanga, Irambisa, Paraasa, Iranasa, Yugutua, Yerisa, and others by the *s.* part. It enters the woods of the Xivaros Indians, and running to the *e.* for upwards of 57 leagues, disembogues itself in a very large stream by the *w.* part into the Mayo or Santiago, [and with this name enters the Marañon, or Amazonas, near St. Borja.]

ZAMPALLON. See SAMPALLON.

ZAMUCOS, SAN IGNACIO DE, a settlement of the province and government of Chaco in Peru; situate on the shore of the river Paraguay.

ZAMUDIOS, a river of the province and government of Chacó in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the grand *cordillera*, runs *w.* and enters the S. Sea, to the *e.* of the Point of Salinas.

ZANA. See SANA.

ZANAYAQUILPA, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Xilotepéc in Nueva España; annexed to the curacy of its capital, from whence it lies four leagues to *e.* It contains 83 Indian families.

ZANCA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Quispicanchi in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Papres.

ZANCOS, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Vilcas Huaman in the same kingdom as the former.

ZANCUDOS, SAN JOSEPH DE LOS, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province of San Juan de los Llanos of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river Apure.

ZAND, [or, rather, SAND] POINT, an extremity of the island of Tobago, which looks to the *s.* opposite the point of Arecifes, of the island of Trinidad.

ZANGUAL, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Truxillo in Peru; on the shore of the river Virú.

ZANGUYO, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Zamora in Nueva España. It is of a hot and moist temperature, bounded *n.* by the jurisdiction of Zapotlán of Nueva Galicia, from whence it lies 18 leagues to the *n.* by the jurisdiction of la Barca of the same province, which is 14 leagues distant; and by the *n.* and *s.* by the jurisdiction of Xiquilpan, at two leagues distance. It suffers much from scarcity of water, providing itself with the rain which falls periodically. It contains 14 families of Spaniards, 15 of Indians, 10 of *Mustees*, and five of Mulattoes, who trade in some seeds and *pita*. It has a convent of religious of San Agustin, and is 12 leagues *w.* of its capital.

ZANJON, PRIMERO, a river of the province and government of Mainas in the kingdom of Quito. It rises *e.* of the settlement of San Pedro, runs to *n. n. e.* and enters the Machapo.

ZANJON, another river in the same province and kingdom as the former, with the surname of Segundo, for distinction. It is the same which changes its name to MACHUCO. See this article.

ZANJON, another, of the district of Guadalab-

quen, in the kingdom of Chile. It runs nearly *n.* and enters the Valdivia.

ZANOJE, a settlement of the province and government of Venezuela in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river Guarico, opposite the mouth of the Orituco.

ZAORIPA, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province and government of Sonora.

ZAPALLOS, a river of the province and *corregimiento* of Pastos in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises *e.* of the city of Caguan, runs *e.* and enters the grand river Caquetá, between those of Caguan and la Fragua.

ZAPALUTLA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Chiapa and kingdom of Guatemala in the district of Comitlan.

ZAPANGAS, a settlement of the province and government of Costarica in the same kingdom as the former; situate near the coast of the S. Sea, and of Cape Blanco.

ZAPANQUI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Sicasica in Peru.

ZAPARAS, a barbarous nation of Indians, descended from the Encabellados in the province of Sucumbios, and in the vicinities of the river Curaray.

Zaparas, another nation of Indians in the province and government of Venezuela, of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; bounded *n.* by the Guajiros.

Zaparas, a settlement of the province and government of Maracaibo in the same kingdom; situate on the *e.* coast, and at the point formed by the great lake of Maracaibo.

ZAPAS, San Salvador de, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province and government of Mainas of the kingdom of Quito.

ZAPATERO, a small island, situate in the great lake of Nicaragua.

ZAPATOSA, a lake of the province and government of Santa Marta, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, formed from various rivers which rise from the *sierra* Nevada (snowy) and empties itself by four arms, which afterwards unite, and with the name of Cesaré, enters the Grande de la Magdalena.

Zapatosa, a settlement of the same province and kingdom.

ZAPAZOS, a barbarous nation of Indians who dwell in the *n. n. e.* of the province and *corregimiento* of Guamico in Peru; bounded by the nation of the Pantaguas, and is but little known.

ZAPE, a settlement of the province and government of Antioquia in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the river San Agustin.

ZAPILOSA, San Jacinto de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Yahuive, and *alcaldía mayor* of Villalta. It contains 72 families of Indians, and is six leagues *n.* of its capital.

[ZAPITIVA, a small scattered settlement of Brasil, four leagues from Santa Cruz, formerly the property of the Jesuits, and now the royal farm of the Prince Regent of Portugal. It is 40 English miles from Rio Janeiro. The road from Zapitiva to Rio Janeiro is composed of primitive granite: in some parts are large stones, approximating to basalt; and other parts consist of a fine clay. The dwellings on this route are very few, but there is one well known to travellers as the half-way house between the village and the capital, called Panelera, or the Bake-house.]

ZAPO, Valley of, in the province and *corregimiento* of Muzo, of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, thus called by the first Spaniards who entered at the conquest through a very large *zapo*, or valley, which they found here.

ZAPOCOTLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Zochicoatlan, in the same kingdom of Nueva España as the former. It is very small, its population being reduced to 14 Indian families. Three leagues *w.* of its capital.

ZAPOPAN, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España in the kingdom of Nueva Galicia and bishopric of Guadalaxara. It is much reduced, consisting only of four settlements, which are,—

San Estevan,	Ocotlán,
Cedazos,	Thesistlan.

The capital is of the same, and has a numerous population of Spaniards and *Mustees*, besides the people who frequently meet here to visit the sanctuary of a miraculous image of Our Lady, which is venerated in its district. It produces abundant crops of maize, wheat, and other seeds, with which it does much traffic. Two and a half leagues *n. w.* of Guadalaxara.

ZAPOSTLAHUACA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Santa Marta, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom. It contains 23 families of Indians applied to the cultivation of maize and some fruits, the only ones it produces. Somewhat more than three leagues *e. s. e.* of its capital.

ZAPOTAS, a barbarous nation of Indians inhabiting the woods to the *s.* of the Marañon: bounded by the nations of the Abixiras, Iquitos, and Yurusnies; and at continual war with the Chevalos.

ZAPOTE, or ZAPOTE YACU, a river which flows down from the mountains to the *s.* of the settlement of Chamicuros, in the *s.* lands of the Marañon. It enters into the Casavatay, in lat. 5° 11′ *s.*

ZAPOTE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxamarquilla in Peru. It has a good port in the river Marañon, by which a communication and commerce are made with the province of Huamachuco.

ZAPOTE, another settlement, with the dedicatory title of Santa Maria, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Zacatlán in Nueva España; to the district of which belong other six settlements, in which dwell 987 families of Indians.

ZAPOTE, another, in the head settlement of the district of Atistlae, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom. It is of a cold and moist temperature, and inhabited by 38 families of Indians who sow maize, their poverty not admitting anything else.

ZAPOTECAS, SAN ILDEFONSO DE LOS, a city of the province and bishopric of Oaxaca in Nueva España; founded by the treasurer Alonso de Estrada between some very lofty mountains, which in many parts seem to out-top the clouds. Here it frequently rains, and at times the sun is invisible; nor is there in its precincts a *llanura* of any extent. Notwithstanding the roughness and inequality of the territory, its conquest was undertaken, and the Zapotecas and Mixes Indians were defeated. It is between these two people that the city stands, and many are the privileges which have been granted it by the Emperor Charles V.; and amongst the rest, that all the Spaniards who established themselves here should enjoy a revenue from the royal funds, and bear the title of *corregidors;* also it was granted to the Indians that they should be free from all kinds of tribute. The edifices are of bad quality, the soil not permitting better, and they are built of clay for want of mortar. It has still a good convent of St. Domingo, though in 1580 it was burnt and entirely destroyed.

ZAPOTILTIC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district, and *alcaldía mayor* of Sapotlan in Nueva España; situate between this and the head settlement of Tuspan. It is very populous, and has a convent of Franciscans. A little less than three leagues from its capital.

ZAPOTITLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tuscacuezco, and *alcaldía mayor* of Amola in Nueva España; near two volcanoes which are in the jurisdiction of Colima, the one covered with snow, and the other a volcano. It has a convent of Franciscans, and 80 families of Indians who cultivate their gardens and orchards and cut wood in the *sierras* of the volcanoes. It is 12 leagues *e.* of its head settlement, and this distance is filled up with five deep ravines, which render impossible the journey in the winter-time, since they are then inundated.

ZAPOTITLAN, a province and *alcaldía mayor* of the kingdom of Guatemala; divided, from its great extent, into four parts or lieutenancies of the *alcalde mayor;* the same being Azitlan, Tepanatitlan, Quezaltenango, and Totonicapa.

ZAPOTLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tlacolula, and *alcaldía mayor* of Huamalula in Nueva España; in the plain of a ravine surrounded by mountains which make it very dismal. It is very abundant in waters, which gush out of the earth in various springs; and these serve for the irrigation of the orchards and crops of seeds. It contains 62 families of Indians who cultivate cochineal, with which they trade to such an extent, as to exceed in their quantity in this article all that is procured in the other jurisdictions. Three leagues *n.* of its head settlement.

ZAPOTLAN, another settlement, in the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Pachuca, of the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Tezayuca. It contains only 14 families of Indians.

ZAPOTLAN, another, of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Tepic in the same kingdom. It contains 106 families of Indians, who have no other traffic than that arising from the cultivation of seeds and cotton. Three leagues *e.* by *s.* of its capital.

ZAPOTLAN, another, which is the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Sentipac in the same kingdom. It is of a hot temperature, contains 83 families of Indians, some of Spaniards and *Mustees*, and a convent of Franciscans. Twenty leagues *n. w.* of its capital.

ZAPOTLAN, a shoal of rocks of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Tabasco in Nueva España, on the side of the point of San Martin.

ZAPUESA, a settlement of the province and

government of Santa Marta, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the shore of the lake Zapatosa, on the *w.* side.

ZAQUALCO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Amaqueca and *alcaldía mayor* of Zayula in Nueva España; situate in a plain formed by various mountains. It has a lake of salt-water of four leagues long, and its population is of 200 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and 300 of Indians, who in their territory gather much maize, and breed large cattle, though its principal commerce is in leather, of which they make shoes for sale in the other jurisdictions. It has a convent of Franciscans, and is 10 leagues *w.* by *n.* of its capital.

ZAQUALPA, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, to which is united the district of Escateopán. Its jurisdiction consists of 15 other settlements, head settlements of districts, and which are,—

Marinaltenango,
Coatepec,
Acapetlahuaya,
Santa Maria Teololopán,
San Surion Totoltepec,
Santa Maria Escateopan,
Santa Maria Tonatico,
San Juan Quetzala,
Ixtapa,
San Francisco Zicapuzalco,
S. Simon Otzuma,
Santiago,
S. Juan Alahuixtlan,
S. Francisco Coatepec.

The capital, of the same name, is of a benign and mild temperature, inclining to hot. It contains 240 families of Indians with those inhabiting its wards, 50 of Spaniards, and as many of *Mustees* and Mulattoes, all dedicated to the labour of the silver mines which are on the river Zaqualpa, and in the sowing of wheat, maize, and other seeds. In its district are found various mills and engines, in which they make sugar, honey, and in which they trade with the other jurisdictions. Thirty leagues *s. e.* one-half *s.* of Mexico.

ZAQUALPA, another settlement, which is the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom. It contains 109 families of Indians, and is three leagues *n.* of its capital.

ZARAGOCILLA, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, of the district of the town of Tolú; situate on the coast within the same bay of Tolú, to the *w.* of the town of this name.

ZARAGOZA, a city of the province and government of Antioquia in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; founded between the rivers Cauca and the Grande de la Magdalena, and on the shore of the Nechi, (the waters of which are very delicious, and mixed with sands of gold), in 1581, by the Governor Gaspar de Rodas, in the valley of Virue. It is of a hot and sickly temperature, and very abundant in gold minerals; these riches having attracted to it a great population, so that it had become a very considerable and wealthy place, but that the influence of its climate has reduced it to 200 housekeepers. It produces many fruits and fish; but it is very scantily supplied with flesh-meat, and wants trade. In its district are the celebrated *lavaderos*, or washing-places of gold, called Tumburón Oca, Santa Marta, La Raya, San Francisco, Machuca, S. Juan, Bará, Avaleta, Guinea, Porcio, and Tenche.

ZARAGOZA, a settlement, called Rincon de Zaragoza, in the head settlement of the district of Puruandiro, and *alcaldía mayor* of Valladolid in Nueva España. It is small, and annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Numarán.

ZARATA, a settlement and capital of the province and *corregimiento* of Larecaxa in Peru; situate near the river Beni.

ZARATA, or ZORATE, a small settlement of the province and government of Santa Marta in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate on the *e.* shore of the river Grande de la Magdalena, to the *s.* of the town of Teneriffe, and to the *w. n. w.* of the lake of its name. It was formerly large, populous, and of great commerce, but now in a state of great decay; of a very warm climate, and in lat. 9° 46′ *n.*

ZARBE, a river of the province of Los Marquetones in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises near the city of Muzo to the *n.*, follows its course to this *rhumb* for many leagues, and, uniting itself with the Cararé, enters the Grande de la Magdalena, at a small distance from where this is entered by the Opón.

ZARIPA, a river of the province and government of Maracaibo in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the *sierra* Nevada (snowy), and enters the Apure, four leagues to the *w.* of the Ticoporo.

ZARUMA, or SARUMA, a town of the province and *corregimiento* of Loxa in the kingdom of Quito; founded by Captain Alonso de Mercadillo in 1549, with the title of city, which was afterwards changed to that of town; upon the river Amarillo. It is of a very hot climate; since, according to the observations of Don Car-

los La Condamine, of the Academy of the Sciences of Paris, it is only 1,680 yards above the level of the sea, which is one half less than is the territory of Quito. It has a very good parish-church, and a convent of the religious observers of San Francisco. It was formerly very populous, and had many noble families, although, at the present day, it is much reduced; there being now, however, no less than 6,000 souls in it. The abundance of its gold minerals has rendered this city celebrated, and, although these metals are not of the finest alloy, and although the inhabitants do not understand how to extract the particles of silver and lead, with which they are mixed; yet it is to be observed, that these mines are some of the few which have been worked, without intermission, from their first discovery to the present day; and yet they are in a state of decay, and the city is much dilapidated, since the houses which were built upon the mines, many of which were so excavated as to give way, have fallen in the ruins. Here are many founderies and silver-smiths forges, in which they make trinkets; since the gold, unworked, finds no market abroad. The natives are discoloured, from the malignant vapours from the metals, particularly from the quicksilver, which is found in every part. The *corregidor* of Loxa enjoys also the title of *alcalde mayor* of the mines of Zaruma. [This town is 30 miles *n. w.* of Loxa, in lat. 3° 37′ *s.* and long. 79° 33′ *w.*]

ZARZA. See Loxa.

ZASSA, a settlement of the island of Cueva, on the *n.* coast.

ZAVALITA, a settlement of the province and government of Antioquia, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada.

ZAURA, a small river of the province and colony of Surinam, in the part of Guayana possessed by the Dutch. It is one of those which enter the Cuyuni near its source.

ZAYULA, or Sayula, a jurisdiction and *alcadía mayor* of Nueva España and kingdom of Nueva Galicia, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacan. It is one of those of the greatest extent, being 150 leagues in circumference: it abounds in cattle, fruit, and seeds, has many workshops, in which are made of their wool a certain portion of coarse blankets, this being its principal trade. Anciently great numbers of cattle used to die from drinking the well-waters, which are very thick and unhealthy; but, in 1742, the precaution was taken of conducting the water to the cattle by subterranean aqueducts from a stream of sweet and good water, rising at the foot of a lofty mountain, two leagues from the capital, towards the *w.* The population of this district is numerous, and consists of the following settlements:

Uxmaxaque,	Atotonilco,
Apango,	Atemaxaque,
Atlaco,	Xonacatlán,
Chiquilixpan,	Santa Cruz 1.
Amaqueca,	Teocuitlan,
Tepet,	Cuyacapán,
Talalpa,	Cacula,
Xalpa,	San Martin,
Ixhuatlan,	Santa Cruz 2.
San Luis,	Teotepec,
Atoyaque,	Axixique,
Zechalatla,	San Juan Cozatla,
Zaqualco,	San Christoval,
San Marcos,	Chapala,
Santa Ana,	San Antonio,
Tizapán,	Tizapan.

The capital is the settlement of the same name, situate in a *llanura*, sheltered by mountains on the *s.* and on the *w.* and on the *n.* having a lake of six leagues long and two wide, but of very little depth; and, consequently, useless; since, besides that it yields no fish, its waters are brackish, and it is only on the shores that they find some small fry. The temperature is rather hot than mild, but refreshed by the rains in the months of April and May. Its population is composed of 500 families, of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and 30 of Indians; the commerce of whom, with regard to the first, is in the cultivation of chile and other seeds, whilst the Indians dedicate themselves to the making of mixed wine, which they extract from the roots of magueyes or pitales trees, making also from the same *pita* many bags, which serve for the traffic of salt, carried on by many of the Spaniards with the other jurisdictions. It has a magnificent convent of the religious of San Francisco, in the grand altar of which is venerated a cross, which 100 years after the *reduccion* of those provinces, was fixed in the ground at the end of the principal street; and on the 3d of May, on which the church celebrates the festival of its invention, it began to tremble with such violence, for some days at intervals, that the extremities of the arms touched the ground; whilst neither the latter nor the houses were observed to be at all agitated: many of the people from the neighbouring parts assembled to view this prodigy, to which they have ascribed their testimony. [Zayula is 245 miles *w.*

with a slight inclination to the *s.* of Mexico, in long. 103° 28′ *n.* lat. 19° 2′ *w.*]

ZAYULA, another settlement, in the head settlement of the district of Huipuxla and *alcaldía mayor* of Tepetango, in Nueva España. It contains 53 families of Indians.

ZAYULA, another, of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of los Zoques, in the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZAYULTEPEC, S. ANDRES DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Acayuca, in Nueva España. It is of a hot and moist temperature, produces maize, French-beans, fruit, and thread of *pita*, which forms its principal commerce, contains 140 families of Indians, and is two leagues from its capital.

ZEDALES, a province and *alcaldía mayor* of the kingdom of Guatemala. It is of small extent, one of the most inferior provinces.

ZEDROS, RIVER DE LOS, in the province and government of Chocó, and of the district of Raposo, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the celebrated valley of Patia, in the province of Popayan, and empties itself into the S. Sea, in the Bay of Guacasma.

ZEIBO, a settlement of the island and government of St. Domingo, situate on the shore of the river of la Romana, in the centre of the *e.* head.

ZEIBO, an isle or rock of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Yucatán, opposite the settlement of Lerma.

ZEISEN, an island of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Cartagena, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is in the Bay of Tolú, and is that which lies the farthest out of the islands forming that bay.

ZELANDA, NUEVA, a town and fort of the Dutch, in the province and colony of Surinam; situate on the shore of the river Poumaron, in the point or cape of Nassau or Orange.

ZELAYA, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of the province and bishopric of Mechoacán, in Nueva España. It is extremely fertile, and abounding in fruits; covered with very many cultivated estates, in which are produced wheat, maize, barley, and other seeds; but that from which they derive the greatest profit is from chile, pasilla or pepper, it being incredible the excessive quantity which they sow and gather of this. It has also many grounds of olives of different species, of which they make a portion of oil of excellent quality; they have also long and short vines, yielding no small quantity of wine. Its population consists of eight settlements, head settlements of the district, upon which are dependent other small settlements; and which are,

Yurirapundaro,	San Juan Bautista,
S. Miguel Emenguaro,	Apaceo,
Urireo,	S. Francisco Chamacuero,
S. Juan de la Vega,	Acambaro.
S. Miguel Gerequaro,	

The capital is the settlement of the same name, one of the best and most pleasant towns in the bishopric. It is in a *llanura*, its streets are straight, well proportioned, and regular. The parish church is the convent of S. Francisco, a sumptuous building, of fine architecture, erected by the Commissary General *Fr.* Fernando Alonso Gonzales, with a house of studies, and a beautiful tower, which is the loftiest of any that have been made in America; also four other convents, which are of S. Agustin, de Carmelitas Descalzos, of S. Juan de Dios, with an hospital; and a college which belonged to the Jesuits. The population consists of 2,000 families, including those dwelling in the wards and estates of its district, and 2,600 of Othomies Indians. The territory surrounding it is very salitrous, so that the dust in the summer time is very troublesome, although even this circumstance contributes to render the soil more luxuriant. [Zelaya is 110 miles *n. w.* from Mexico, in long. 100° 30′ *w.* lat. 20° 38′ *n.*]

[ZELITO, or ZILTIO, one of the forts for the protection of the harbour of Cartagena, on the *n.* coast of S. America.]

ZEMIFARA, a settlement of the province and government of Antioquia, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate between the rivers Magdalena and Cauca, and nearer to the latter.

ZEMPOALA, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España. It is much reduced, consisting of only five settlements, which are

Tezahuapa,	Flaquilpa,
Zaqualpa,	Epazeyuca.
Santo Tomas Talistac,	

The capital is of the same name, and is as thinly inhabited as the jurisdiction, containing only from 14 to 15 families of Spaniards, Mulattoes and *Mustees*, 45 of Indians, and a good convent of the religious of S. Francisco. Its principal commerce is in *pulque*, as the whole of the country is covered with *magueyes*, of the best quality, for making this drink. It produces also

some wheat, maize, and barley, which are cultivated by those few natives: 17 leagues *n. e.* of Mexico.

ZEMPOALA, another settlement, of the head settlement of the district of Tlalixcoya and *alcaldía mayor* of Mizantla, containing 15 families of Indians.

ZEMPOALA, another, a small settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guachinango, in the same kingdom as the former; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Chiconcuautla.

ZENEGUANCA, BAY OF, the *n.* coast of the government and province of Santa Marta and Nuevo Reyno de Granada, between the Cape of la Abuja and that of San Juan de Guia.

ZENITARA, a river of the province and government of Antioquia, in the same kingdom as the former bay. It rises near the *sierras* of Guamoco, and enters the Grande de la Magdalena.

ZENIZO, a small island of the N. Sea, near the coast of the province and government of Cartagena, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is at the entrance of the river Grande de la Magdalena, and in the part opposite the island Verde.

ZENTLA, SAN GERONIMO DE, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Cordova. It is of a hot temperature, contains 105 families of Indians, and is 15 leagues *e.* of its capital.

ZENTLALPAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Chalco, in Nueva España, one league *e.* of the settlement of Amecameca, and containing 273 families of Indians.

ZENTORA, a small river of the province and government of Mainas, in the kingdom of Quito; which runs *e.* and enters the Napo below the settlement of San Estanislao.

ZEPAYUTLA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Zitepec and *alcaldía mayor* of Tenango del Valle, in Nueva España. It was once of the jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Tacuba, and was added to this from the great distance of the former. It contains 40 Indian families.

ZEPEDA, a settlement of the province and government of Santa Marta, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; founded on the shore of the river Cesare, in the valley of Upár: *n. n. e.* of the city of los Reyes.

ZEPITA, a settlement of the government and jurisdiction of Pamplona in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a very hot temperature, produces much sugar-cane, plantains, *yucas*, and large and small cattle. Its natives, who amount to about 300, suffer an epidemic of the shingles, which they call carates, and which is very common here: 25 leagues from Pamplona, eight from the city of San Gil, and the same from that of Giron.

ZEPITA, another settlement, in the province and government of Chacuito and kingdom of Peru; situate on the shore of the Great Lake, and where rises the river del Desaguadero.

ZERETE, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, and of the district of the town of Tolú, founded in 1776, by the Governor Don Franciso Pimienta.

ZERMEFANA, a settlement of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, very populous in the time of the Indians; and capital of the province of this name. It is now a miserable place, of a hot and moist temperature, inhabited by a very few unhappy Indians.

ZEROCAHUI, a settlement of the missions which were held by the Jesuits in the province and government of Cinaloa in N. America.

ZEREZUELA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Bogotá in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; situate in a plain. It is of a very cold temperature, but pleasant, delightful, and abounding in all the fruits of a cold climate. Its waters are much celebrated, it contains 70 housekeepers, as many Indians, and is three leagues *s. e.* of Santa Fé, in the high road which leads down to Honda and to Mariquita.

ZESACO, a small island of the S. Sea, close to the coast of the province and government of Veragua, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, on the side of Point Blanca.

ZETEGANTI, a river of the province and government of Darien, in the same kingdom as the former island. It rises in the *s.* part, and runs *n.* until it disembogues itself in the sea in the Gulf of San Miguel.

ZEUNAS, a barbarous nation of Indians dwelling in the woods to the *n.* of the Marañon. It is very warlike, and at continual enmity with the Aguas, and uses the most active poison in their arms.

ZIA, a settlement of the missions held by the religious of San Francisco, in the kingdom of Nuevo Mexico.

ZIA, a river in the same kingdom.

ZIACALCO, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Huatenango, and *alcaldía*

mayor of Colotlan in Nueva España; two leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

ZIAS, or ZIYUS, a barbarous nation of Indians of Peru, descended from the Parianas. They live in the woods to the *e.* of the river Putumayu. They are tall and well made, and, though treacherous, warlike.

ZIBIRIJOA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Cinaloa in Nueva España, on the shore of the river Fuerte, between the settlements of Teguego and Charay.

ZICALPA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Riobamba in the kingdom of Quito, celebrated for the sanctuary of Nuestra Señora of its title, and which is venerated here, with a beautiful temple and corresponding ornaments. Here also is celebrated an annual solemn festival, and on all occasions of public necessity the said image is carried in procession to the capital, from whence this settlement lies only two miles off by a broad and beautiful road, which is meandering, in order with the greater facility to reach the settlement which is situate on a mountain.

ZICAPUZALCO, SAN FRANCISCO DE, a settlement of the head settlement of Escateopán and *alcaldía mayor* of Zaqualpa in Nueva España, containing 140 families of Indians.

ZICASTLA, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Mixtetlan in the same kingdom as the former, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Tlanchinol, and containing 95 Indian families.

ZICUICHI, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Tinguindin in the same kingdom, containing 84 families of Indians, all of whom are painters and sculptors, though indifferent; four leagues *e.* of its capital.

ZICUILTEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xocutla and *alcaldía mayor* of Chilapo, in the same kingdom; eight leagues *s.* of its head settlement.

ZILACAYOAPAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tonalá in the same kingdom.

ZILACOLOTITLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Xalapa and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom. It contains 40 families of Indians, agriculturalists, and is three leagues from its head settlement.

ZIMACOTA, a settlement of the jurisdiction and district of the city of San Gil and *corregimiento* of Tunja in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a hot temperature, very abundant in rice, which fetches generally three reals the *arroba*, in cotton, of which they make very good counterpanes, coverings for tents, &c. and by which they carry on a good trade; as also in much sugar which they make, together with conserves, and in excellent woods. It produces also a great quantity of maize, *yucas*, and fruits. It was formerly an Indian town, and is now transformed into a population of whites; is the last town of the Nuevo Reyno, by the *w.* part, a long chain of mountains extending themselves from it as far as the river Grande de la Magdalena. It contains 1,000 inhabitants, and is eight leagues *s. w.* of the town of San Gil, the river Mochuelo and Suarez, which are passed in *taravitas*, running between.

ZIMAPAN, a settlement of the capital and *real* of mines of the *alcaldía mayor* of this name, the jurisdiction of which has no other settlement, although some wards, in which are found 820 families of Indians, and 200 of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes. Its temperature is extremely cold, it being situate in the *sierra* Madre de Mextitlan. Its trade is reduced to that of the mines of silver, which has an alloy of lead, and which, in consequence, is used only in founding, the lead not permitting the quicksilver to be used as it is in other parts. The richest and most celebrated vein of this mine is that which they call *lomo de toro* (bull's loins) and from whence the metal, ever since its discovery, has been extracted of a red colour. [Zimapan is 58 miles *n. n. e.* of Mexico, in lat. 20° 45′ *n.* and long. 98° 40′ *w.*]

ZIMARRONES, a barbarous nation of Indians, descended from the Mainas, and dwelling in the woods in the vicinities of the river Morona on the *e.* part, and to the *w.* of the Pataza, and extending as far as the Marañon. They are now very few, and go dispersed about.

ZIMATLAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Chichicapa and province and bishopric of Oaxaca in Nueva España. It is of a mild and dry temperature, was formerly a separate jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor*, but which was added to this *alcaldía*, with the settlements contained in four head settlements of the district. It contains a convent of Dominicans, and 615 families of Indians, who cultivate and trade in cochineal and seeds; [11 miles *s. w.* from the city of Oaxaca.]

ZIMITARA, a river of the province and government of Cartagena and district of Guamoco in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, which runs *n. n. e.* and enters the Grande de la Magdalena.

ZIMITI, a city of the same province and government as the former river; on the shore of a lake formed by the waters of the Magdalena.

ZIMPALCO, San Juan de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Atempa and *alcaldía mayor* of Teuzitan in Nueva España; annexed to the curacy of the former. It contains 52 families of Indians, and is one league *n.* of its head settlement.

ZINACAMITLAN, a principal or head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Motines in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 26 families of Indians.

ZINACANTEPEC, San Miguel de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Metepec in the same kingdom. It contains 13 families of Indians, with those of the wards of its district.

Zinacantepec, another, a small settlement in the head settlement of the district of Almoloya and *alcaldía mayor* of Colima in the same kingdom; annexed to the curacy of Cochimatlan.

ZINAPEQUARO, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlalpujagua in Nueva España. It contains 245 families, including those of the wards of its district, and a convent of Franciscans. Near the road which leads from this settlement to the city of Valladolid, which served as a fortress to the Chichimecas Indians, are some medicinal hot baths, celebrated for the cure of many infirmities; 17 leagues *n. n. w.* of its capital.

ZINGA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Huamalies in Peru.

ZINGAREO, Santa Maria de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Irimbo and *alcaldía mayor* of Maravatio, in the province and bishopric of Mechoacan. It contains 30 families of Indians, and, in the *ranchos* of its district, 15 of Spaniards, 12 of *Mustees*, and 26 of Indians; one league *n. n. w.* of its head settlement.

[ZINOCHSAA, the original name of a river of New York, which runs through Onondago, the chief town of the Six Nations.]

ZINTO, a river of the province and government of Santa Marta, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, in the *e.* part. It runs from *s.* to *n.* and enters the sea, forming a small bay. Some call it also of Don Diego. Its mouth is in lat. 11° 17′ *n.*

ZINZELEJO, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena in the same kingdom as the former river; situate *n.* of the town of San Bernardo Abad.

ZIMI, a large river of the same province and kingdom as the former settlement. It rises in the valley of Guaca, at the foot of the *sierras* of Abide, runs *n.* in a serpentine course, through the district of Tolu, and enters the sea, forming a beautiful bay by different mouths, which make many islands. The territory, laved by this river, is very fertile, and provides with fruit and herbs the city of Cartagena. Its mouth is in lat. 9° 28′ *n.*

Zimi, a town of the above province and kingdom, on the *e.* shore of the former river. It was a large town in the time of the Indians, and in it much gold was found by Pedro de Heredia in 1534. It is now reduced to a miserable village.

ZINZI, a settlement of the same province and kingdom as the former settlement; situate *n.* of the town of San Bernardo Abad.

ZINTZUNTZA. See Cocupao.

ZIOPATA, a bay of the N. Sea, on the coast of the province and government of Cartagena, and in the Bay and Gulf of Tolu.

ZIORICA, an island of the river Orinoco in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, opposite la Guayana.

ZIPACON, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Bogotá in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a very cold temperature, situate in a rough and mountainous country, and covered over continually with thick clouds; near the settlement of Facatativa, and at the back of that of Bojaca, and eight leagues *s. w.* of Santa Fé.

ZIPAQUIRA, a head settlement of the district of the *corregimiento* of its name in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It is of a cold but benign and healthy temperature; situate in a delightful *llanura*. It produces in abundance wheat, maize, barley, *papas*, and pulse, which are sold in the other provinces, and it thus carries on a lucrative trade, the market taking place every five days. It has some very abundant salines, from whence it extracts 20,000 bushels of salt yearly. Its population consists of more than 800 housekeepers and 80 Indians. It was a doctrinal establishment of the religious of San Francisco; [10 miles *n. n. e.* of Santa Fé, on the Royal Road from thence to Tunja.]

ZIPATALIGUARIS, a barbarous nation of Indians of the province and government of Paraguay, descended from the nation of the Xarayes; bounded *s.* by the Taicomas, *n.* by the Gorgotoques and by the Varais, and *w.* by the mountains

of the province and government of Santa Cruz de la Sierra.

ZIPEZIPE, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cochabamba in Peru.

ZIPUAZA, or Zipueza, a large and populous city, in the time of the Indians, of the province and government of Santa Marta and Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It was taken and sacked in 1530, by the Captain Francisco Cardoso. It is at present a miserable village, situate on the *s. w.* coast of Lake Zapatosa, and at a small distance from the Grand River Magdalena on the *e.* part, [and about 56 miles *s. s. e.* of the city of Teneriffe.]

ZIRITA, a city of the province and government of Venezuela in the district of the city of Gibraltar; situate on the shore and at the source of the river of its name.

Zirita. This river, which is very large and abundant, rises in the mountains in the same province, runs in a direction nearly from *e.* to *w.*, and, then making a curve to the *n.* runs to the lake of Maracaibo by the part opposite the entrance of the same lake.

ZISPATA, a settlement of the province and government of Cartagena; situate on the shore of one of the arms of the river Cauca, *s.* of the town of San Bernardo Abad. It is on the side of a great bay of its name, which the Ex-Jesuit Coleti, wrongly called Sistapa in his dictionary.

ZITALA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Capabanastla in the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZITAQUARO, San Juan de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Maravatio in the province and bishopric of Mechoacan; situate in some lofty mountains, covered with very large firs and other trees of valuable timber. It is of a mild temperature, and its district abounds in wheat, maize, French-beans, and other seeds. It has a convent of Franciscans, more than 150 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, and 115 of Indians. In its district, in a part called Purua, there is a fountain of rare qualities, the most peculiar of which are, that all the wood thrown into it sinks to the bottom and becomes covered with stones of different sizes resembling bezoa stones, and which are extremely hard. It is also to be observed, that in its plains are produced the royal dittany. Five leagues *s. w.* of its capital.

[ZITAR, a town of Tierra Firme, S. America, near to and *s.* from the head of the Gulf of Darien.]

ZITEPEC. San Pedro de, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tenango in the same kingdom as the former. It was formerly of the jurisdiction of Tacuba, and was added to this owing to the great distance it was from the former. It contains 70 families of Indians.

ZITLALA, a settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Chilapa in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 175 families of Mexican Indians, and a convent of Augustins, in which is venerated a miraculous image of San Nicolas de Tolentino. This image was being carried from La Puebla de los Angeles to the coast of the S. Sea, and, upon its arrival at this settlement, the chest which contained it was found to be so heavy as to resist the exertions of 50 men to raise it. The inference was, of course, that there was something supernatural in the business, and it being argued by the owners that it was meant that the image should remain in this settlement as the protector of the inhabitants, they, in juridical form, made a present of it to them. Upon the arrival of the curate, who was to take it away, the chest was moved up with one hand, and the circumstance having greatly surprised the concourse of people who had assembled round the spot, they immediately formed themselves into a solemn procession, shewing forth the most devout expressions of joy and gratitude, and placing the image on the grand altar of the parish-church. Repeated prodigies have been wrought through its intercession. Three leagues *n.* of its capital.

ZITLALTEPEC, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom as the former. It is of a cold temperature, and contains 17 families of Indians, who maintain themselves by the cultivation and commerce of cochineal and cotton. Four leagues *s.* of the settlement of Atlamaxaczinco.

Zitlaltepec, another settlement, in the *alcaldía mayor* of Zumpango of the same kingdom. It was formerly the capital of the jurisdiction. It produces maize and barley, in which the natives, who amount to 90 families of Indians, trade, and is one league *w.* of its capital.

[ZOAR, a plantation of Berkshire County, Massachusetts, which contained, in 1790, 78 inhabitants.]

ZOCAUS, a river of the province and government of Quijos and Macas in the kingdom of Quito, and which enters the Putumayo.

ZOCHICOATLAN, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España. It produces silk and cotton, of which they make cloaks, sheets,

table-cloths, napkins, stockings, and under stockings; carrying on with all these a great commerce, as also with sugar manufactured in the engines in its district, and with various other productions. Its population consists of the following settlements,—

Acomulco,	Atempa,
Xalamelco,	Xacalco,
Zapocoatlan,	Pexmatlan,
Mecapala,	Talnalic,
Ahuacatlan,	Pauchutla,
Tecpaco,	Tuzancoa,
Chalco,	Papaxtla,
Chilcayotla,	Mazahuacán,
Thocintlan,	Quautlamayan.
Coyutla,	

The capital is the settlement of the same name; situate in the *sierra* of Mextitlan, between some lofty mountains, so that it is of a very cold temperature. It has a good convent of Franciscans, and its population is composed of six families of Spaniards and *Mustees*, and of 124 of Indians. [About 90 miles *n. e.* of Mexico.]

ZOCHIMEHUA, S. Pablo de, a small settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Cholula in Nueva España. It contains seven or eight families of Indians, and is very close to the settlement of La Puebla.

ZOCOLOTLA, Santa Maria de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Zapotitlan, and *alcaldía mayor* of Zacatlán in the same kingdom as the former. One league from its head settlement.

ZOCONUSCO, Santiago de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Acayuca in Nueva España, of a hot and moist temperature. It produces maize, French-beans, and much thread of *pita*, in which consists its principal trade with the other jurisdictions. It contains 295 families of Indians, and is one league *e.* of its capital and head settlement.

ZOCOTO, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Caxamarca in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Huambos.

ZOMETLA, S. Miguel de, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Tezcoco in Nueva España; annexed to that of Acolman, from whence it lies a quarter of a league to the *e.* It contains 91 families of Indians.

[ZONCOLCUCAN, mountains in Guaxaca, in Nueva España, which give rise to Papalo-Apain, or Alvarad River.]

[ZONESHIO, the chief town of the Seneca Indians. Two miles *n.* of Seneca Lake.]

ZONGUILUCA, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Tulanzinco in the same kingdom. It contains a convent of Augustins, and 43 families of Indians. Four leagues *n.* of its capital.

ZONZERON, a settlement of the province and *captainship* of Sergipe in Brazil; on the shore of the Bay of Sergipe in the part opposite the capital.

ZOPIA, a river of the province and government of Antioquia in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It runs *e.* and enters the large stream of the Cauca, opposite the city of Anserma.

ZOQUES, a province and *alcaldía mayor* of the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZOQUITLAN, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa in Nueva España; situate in a lofty plain surrounded by a river, with the waters of which the inhabitants irrigate their crops. Here dwell 40 families of Indians, and in its district are 20 mills, or sugar-engines, in which reside upwards of 20 families of Spaniards and *Mustees*, all of them upon the banks of a river which passes through various settlements of this jurisdiction, and which equally fertilizes the jurisdiction of Tehuantepeque, where its course terminates, inasmuch as it there enters the S. Sea. Three leagues *e.* of the settlement of Totalpa.

Zoquitlan, another settlement of the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Theotihuacan in the same kingdom. It contains 500 families of Indians, and is 10 leagues *s. e.* of the capital.

ZOQUIZINCO, Sta. Maria de, a head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Marinalco in the same kingdom, and of a cold and moist temperature. The whole of its district is full of wells of water, though, notwithstanding its settlements suffer much from want of that article, as being situate on the driest plain in the district. This settlement is surrounded by mountains on the *w.* and *n. w.* and its population amounts to 147 families of Indians, who trade in various seeds, make *pulque*, and cut wood, of which there is great abundance in the aforesaid mountains. Five leagues *n.* of its capital.

ZORATA, a settlement and capital of the province and *corregimiento* of Larecaxa in Peru.

ZOYACATLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of S. Luis de Potosí, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in Nueva España. It contains 65 families of Indians, and is three leagues from its head settlement.

ZOYALTEPEC, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Teutila in the same kingdom as the former. It is of a warm and dry

temperature, and in the wards of its district dwell 600 families of Indians, who cultivate much cotton and *vaynilla*. Ten leagues *s.* of its capital.

ZOYALTEPEC, another settlement, with the dedicatory title of San Bartolome, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Yanguitlán in the same kingdom. It contains 64 families of Indians, and is five leagues *s. e.* of its capital.

ZOYATITLAN, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Capabanastla in the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZOYATLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district, and *alcaldía mayor* of Autlan in Nueva España. It contains 25 families of Indians who cultivate many seeds and fruits, the soil being extremely fertile. It is annexed to the curacy of Tenamaztlán, from whence it lies 1½ leagues to the *s.* with some inclination to the *w.*

ZOYATLAN, another settlement, of the head settlement of the district of San Luis de la Costa, and *alcaldía mayor* of Tlapa in the same kingdom. It is of a hot temperature, contains 74 families of Indians, and is five leagues from its head settlement.

ZOYATLINALAPA, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Atrisco in the same kingdom as the former. It is of mild temperature, contains 65 families of Indians, and is 16 leagues *e. s. e.* of its capital.

ZOZOCOLTENANGO, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Capabanastla in the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZOZOLCO, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Papantla in the same kingdom. It contains 320 families of Indians, and is 14 leagues from its capital.

ZOZORANGA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Loxa in the kingdom of Quito.

ZUA, a small river of the province and government of Cumaná, which rises *e.* of the town of San Fernando, runs *s.*, and turning *w.* enters the Chivata.

ZUAQUEO, a small river of the province of Ostimuri in Nueva España, which enters the Hiaqui.

ZUATLAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Xala in Nueva España. It is of a cold temperature, annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Yxtlan. It contains 25 families of Indians who trade in seeds and French-beans, and is three leagues *n.* by *s.* of its capital.

ZUATLAN, another settlement, in the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Los Zoques, and kingdom of Guatemala.

ZUCHILTEPEC, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Tepalcaltepec and *alcaldía mayor* of Nexapa in the same kingdom. It contains 24 families of Indians, and is half a league from its head settlement.

ZUCHIQUILATZAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Juxtlahuaca in Nueva España. It contains 80 families of Indians, including those of two other settlements of its district.

ZUCHITEPEC, S. MIGUEL DE, a settlement of the head settlement of the district of Oztolotepec and *alcaldía mayor* of Mahuatlan in the same kingdom. Its principal commerce is in trinkets for making rosaries: 20 leagues from the capital.

ZUCHITLAN, a settlement of the head settlement of the district and *alcaldía mayor* of Autlan in the same kingdom. It contains 20 families of Indians, who maintain themselves by trading in large cattle, sugar, honey, seeds, and oil of coco, of which they procure abundance from the great numbers of palms in its district. It is annexed to the curacy of Zecolotlan, and is distant four leagues to the *s.*

ZUCHITLAPILCO, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Guajuapa in the same kingdom as the former. It contains 55 families of Indians.

ZULE, a river of the province and government of Pamplona in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada. It rises in the mountains of that district, and runs from *s.* to *n.* forming a curve till it enters the lake of Maracaibo, by the part opposite the mouth of this lake.

ZULTEPEC, or SULTEPEC, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, known by the name of la Plata, from the opulence which it had obtained in former times from its minerals, and from the engines for working the metals found here, and which were of the best alloy. In its district are 22 cultivated estates, at which assist 167 families of Spaniards, *Mustees* and Mulattoes, and who gather abundant crops of wheat, barley, maize, and other seeds. It is one of the most populous, as may be seen by the following settlements:

Capula,	Pozoltepec,
Santiago Tecaltitlan,	Zultepec,
S. Francisco Coajuzco,	Santa Cruz,
Santiago,	Santo Tomas,
San Pedro Almoloya,	Amatepec,
Acuyapan,	San Felipe,

San Simon,
San Miguel,
Santiago,
Santiago Clayac,
San Juan,
San Mateo,
Coatepec,
San Francisco,
San Felipe,
San Pedro,
Santa Ana,
Santa Maria,
S. Juan Huixtlán,
Aldas,
San Miguel Tecolmaloya,
Axuchitlan,
Tehuilotepec,
San Pedro Huestahú,
Matlatepec,
Temascaltepec,
San Miguel de los Ranchos,
San Francisco,
San Mateo de los Ranchos,
San Martin Tequisquipa,
San Andres de las Gamas,
San Simon de Barreteros,
San Francisco del Valle,
Sta. Maria Ahuacatlan,
Santa Maria Pipioltepec,
San Miguel Ixtapas,
San Martin,
Santa Cruz,
San Lucas,
San Martin Otzoloapan,
San Juan Atezcapa,
Santo Tomas,
Santa Maria Zacozanapa,
San Pedro Texupilco,
San Miguel Ixtapa,
Cuentla,
Santiago Arizmendi,
San Simon,
San Andres,
San Lucas,
Acamuchitlan,
Acutitlan.

The capital, of the same name, is situate in the most craggy part of a mountain; it is of a mild temperature, and contains 400 families of Spaniards, *Mustees*, and Mulattoes, whose fortunes have greatly decayed. They have now only one mine, which is worked, called Nuestra Señora del Carmen, though, if they had the means, these are not without other mines, which would yield great profit: they are now chiefly dedicated to the exercise of muleteers. The whole of the territory is full of mines of gold, silver, copper, and lead; and they make here some silk stuffs, highly esteemed throughout the kingdom, whilst they draw from the neighbouring jurisdictions such provisions and vegetable productions as they may stand in need of. This settlement has a very good parish church, and a convent of Franciscans, [and is 54 miles *s. w.* from Mexico; in lat. 18° 58′ *n.* and long. 99° 52′ *w.*]

ZULTEPEC, another settlement, in the same jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor*. It is the head settlement of the district, contains 54 families of Indians, and is four leagues *s.* of the capital.

ZULTEPEC, another, of the head settlement of the district of Amuzgos, and *alcaldía mayor* of Xicayán, in the same kingdom. It contains 49 families of Indians, who cultivate and trade in cotton, tobacco, cochineal, and *vaynilla:* 13 leagues *w.* by *n.* of its head settlement.

ZUMALAO, a small settlement of the province and government of Tucumán in Peru, of the district and jurisdiction of the city of Salta. In it is venerated an image of most holy Christ, called de Vilque.

ZUMAMPA, a settlement of the same province and government as the former; on the shore of the river Dulce.

ZUMATA, a settlement of the government and jurisdiction of San Juan Giron, in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada; at the foot of a mountain.

ZUMPAHUACAN, a head settlement of the district of the *alcaldía mayor* of Marinalco in Nueva España. It contains in its district two wards, and, in all, its inhabitants amount to 356 families of Indians, and eight of *Mustees*, who live by sowing maize, making bags and mats, which they there call *petates*, and much lime, and with these it carries on a trade with the neighbouring jurisdictions. It has a convent of Augustins, and is seven leagues *e.* of its capital, by a road, rough and full of deep chasms and ravines.

ZUMPANGO, a jurisdiction and *alcaldía mayor* of Nueva España, with the surname de la Laguna, from a very large lake which it has, and which, although in the time of drought it becomes much diminished, never dries up completely. The same lake has a lock by which it may be replenished by the waters of the lake of Mexico, through the lake Christóval. This territory produces much seed, and in the cultivation of these and in the office of muleteers are the greatest part of the natives employed; although also in the making of *pulque*. Its population consists of the following settlements:

Xitlaltepec,
San Andres Xaltengo,
San Andres Xaltocán,
S. Marcos Tilonzinco,
Santiago Tequisquiac.

The capital is the settlement of its name, on the side of the lake. It is very fertile in barley, maize, French beans and *pulque;* contains 554 families of Indians, 12 of Spaniards, and 92 of Mulattoes and *Mustees:* [23 miles *n.* of Mexico, in lat. 19° 47′ *n.* and long. 99° 2′ *w.*]

ZUMPANGO, another settlement, with the addition de las Minas, in the *alcaldía mayor* of Tixtlan, in the same kingdom. It contains 264 families of Indians.

ZUMPANGO, another, of the province and kingdom of Guatemala.

ZUNA, a settlement of the province and go-

vernment of Quijos and Macas, in the kingdom of Quito.

ZUNA, a large and abundant river of the same kingdom, which rises in a lake in the province of Alausi, near that of Colaycocha; laves the above settlement, to which it gives its name, in the province of Macas, runs *e.*, and, united with the Vulcano, forms the Upano.

ZUNI, a settlement of the province and government of Antioquia in the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, on the shore of the river Grande de la Magdalena.

ZUNI, another, of the missions, held by the religious of St. Francisco, in the kingdom of Nuevo Mexico.

ZUNIBATIVA, a settlement of the province and kingdom of Quito, in the district of las Cinco Lequas de la Capital; situate near the road which leads down from Guayaquil.

ZUNIGA, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Cañete in Peru; annexed to the curacy of the settlement of Pacarán.

ZUNUA, a settlement of the province and *alcaldía mayor* of Zoques, in the kingdom of Guatemala.

ZUNUBAS, a barbarous and ancient nation of Indians, of the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, who inhabited the province of Sutatenza, in what was then the kingdom of Tunja. This race has become entirely extinct.

ZUNUNACA, a river of the province and government of the Chiquitos Indians in Peru, which rises between the Capiavari and the Potaquisimo, runs *e.* and enters or joins the latter.

ZUPUTUBA, a river of the province and country of las Amazonas, in the territory of Matogroso. It runs *s.*; and, uniting itself with others, enters the Paraguay.

ZUQUIAPA, SANTIAGO DE, a settlement of the *alcaldía mayor* of Theocuilco in Nueva España. It contains 74 families of Indians, and is 10 leagues *n.* with an inclination to *w.* of its capital.

ZURI, a settlement of the province and *corregimiento* of Sicasica in Perú.

ZURINAS, a barbarous nation of Indians, inhabiting the woods to the *s.* of the river Marañon. They are pacific, industrious, and of good dispositions, make beautiful woven stuffs of cotton, and utensils of choice woods.

ZURITE, a settlement of the *corregimiento* of Cuzco in Peru; and being seven leagues from this city, in the high road leading to Lima.

ZUTAGAOS. See SUTAGAOS.

[ZUYDT RIVER, a name in Dutch maps given to Delawar river.]

SUPPLEMENT.

THE Ratification of the Treaty of Peace between this Country and the United States arrived on the day on which it was proposed to publish the completion of these Volumes. It was an event too interesting and auspicious to be overlooked; whether in anticipation of the commercial benefits that might be thence procured to the British Empire, or in commemoration of the wise and steady counsels of the Government through which that desirable object has been attained. There cannot indeed be a doubt but that, whether to the American or the English Reader, the following Treaty will form a pleasing corollary to the other documents contained in this work. The Author cannot deny himself the pleasure of congratulating his country at this event: it has repaid him, in a great measure, for the anxiety which the delay in the final production of his labours has occasioned; a delay which, however, he begs to assure the Subscribers, has arisen entirely from a scrupulous attention to their interests, and, perhaps, he might add, to his own credit.

A TREATY OF PEACE AND AMITY

BETWEEN

HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

SIGNED AT GHENT, DECEMBER 24, 1814.

HIS Britannic Majesty and the United States of America, desirous of terminating the War which has unhappily subsisted between the two countries, and of restoring, upon principles of perfect reciprocity, peace, friendship, and good understanding between them, have for that purpose appointed their respective Plenipotentiaries, that is to say, His Britannic Majesty on His part has appointed the Right Honourable Lord James Gambier, late Admiral of the White, now Admiral of the Red Squadron of His Majesty's Fleet; Henry Goulburn, Esquire, a Member of the Imperial Parliament, and Under Secretary of State; and William Adams, Esquire, Doctor of Civil Laws—And the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, has appointed John Quincey Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell, and Albert Gallatin, Citizens of the United States; who, after a reciprocal communication of their respective full powers, have agreed upon the following Articles:

ARTICLE I.

There shall be a firm and universal Peace between His Britannic Majesty and the United States, and between their respective countries, territories, cities, towns, and people, of every degree, without exception of places or persons. All hostilities both by sea and land shall cease, as soon as this Treaty shall have been ratified by both parties as hereinafter mentioned. All territory, places, and possessions whatsoever, taken by either party from the other during the war, or which may be taken after the signing of this Treaty, excepting only the islands hereinafter mentioned, shall be restored without delay, and without causing any destruction, or carrying away any of the artillery, or other public property, originally captured in the said forts or places, and which shall remain therein upon the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty, or any slaves or other private property. And all archives, records, deeds, and papers, either of a public nature, or belonging to private persons, which in the course of the war may have fallen into the hands of the officers of either party, shall be, as far as may be practicable, forthwith restored, and delivered to the proper authorities and persons to whom they respectively belong.

Such of the Islands in the Bay of Passamaquoddy as are claimed by both parties, shall remain in the possession of the party in whose occupation they may be at the time of the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty, until the decision respecting the title to the said Islands shall have been made, in conformity with the Fourth Article of this Treaty.

No disposition made by this Treaty, as to such possession of the islands and territories claimed by both parties, shall in any manner whatever be construed to affect the right of either.

ARTICLE II.

Immediately after the ratifications of this Treaty by both parties as hereinafter mentioned, orders shall be sent to the armies, squadrons, officers, subjects, and citi-

zens of the two powers, to cease from all hostilities. And to prevent all causes of complaint, which might arise on account of the prizes which may be taken at sea after the said ratifications of this Treaty, it is reciprocally agreed, that all vessels and effects which may be taken after the space of twelve days from the said ratifications upon all parts of the coast of North America, from the latitude of 23 degrees north, to the latitude of 50 degrees north, and as far eastward in the Atlantic Ocean, as the 36th degree of west longitude from the meridian of Greenwich, shall be restored on each side; that the time shall be thirty days in all other parts of the Atlantic Ocean north of the equinoctial line or equator, and the same time for the British and Irish Channels, for the Gulf of Mexico, and all parts of the West Indies; forty days for the North Seas, for the Baltic, and for all parts of the Mediterranean; sixty days for the Atlantic Ocean, south of the equator, as far as the latitude of the Cape of Good Hope; ninety days for every other part of the world south of the equator, and one hundred and twenty days for all other parts of the world without exception.

ARTICLE III.

All prisoners of war taken on either side as well by land as by sea, shall be restored as soon as practicable after the ratifications of this Treaty, as hereinafter mentioned, on their paying the debts which they may have contracted during their captivity. The two contracting parties respectively engage to discharge in specie the advances which may have been made by the other for the sustenance and maintenance of such prisoners.

ARTICLE IV.

Whereas it was stipulated by the 2d Article in the Treaty of Peace of 1783, between His Britannic Majesty and the United States of America, that the boundary of the United States should comprehend "all Islands "within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the "United States, and lying between lines to be drawn "due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries, between Nova Scotia on the one part, and East "Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the Bay "of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting such "Islands as now are, or heretofore have been within the "limits of Nova Scotia." And whereas the several Islands in the Bay of Passamaquoddy, which is part of the Bay of Fundy, and the Island of Grand Menan, in the said Bay of Fundy, are claimed by the United States, as being comprehended within their aforesaid boundaries, which said Islands are claimed as belonging to His Britannic Majesty, as having been at the time of, and previous to the aforesaid Treaty of 1783, within the limits of the province of Nova Scotia; in order, therefore, finally, to decide upon these claims, it is agreed that they shall be referred to two Commissioners, to be appointed in the following manner; viz.—One Commissioner shall be appointed by His Britannic Majesty, and one by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof; and the said two Commissioners so appointed shall be sworn impartially to examine and decide upon the said claims, according to such evidence as shall be laid before them on the part of His Britannic Majesty and of the United States respectively. The said Commissioners shall meet at St. Andrews, in the Province of New Brunswic, and shall have power to adjourn to such other place or places as they shall think fit. The said Commissioners shall, by a declaration or report under their hands and seals, decide to which of the two Contracting Parties the several Islands aforesaid do respectively belong, in conformity with the true intent of the said Treaty of Peace of 1783; and if the said Commissioners shall agree in their decision, both parties shall consider such decision as final and conclusive.

It is further agreed, that in the event of the two Commissioners differing upon all or any of the matters so referred to them, or in the event of both or either of the said Commissioners refusing or declining, or wilfully omitting to act as such, they shall make jointly or separately, report or reports, as well to the Government of His Britannic Majesty, as to that of the United States, stating in detail the points on which they differ, and the grounds upon which their respective opinions have been formed, or the grounds upon which they, or either of them, have so refused, declined, or omitted to act. And His Britannic Majesty and the Government of the United States hereby agree to refer the report or reports of the said Commissioners to some friendly sovereign or state, to be then named for that purpose, and who shall be requested to decide on the differences which may be stated in the said report or reports, or upon the report of one Commissioner, together with the grounds upon which the other Commissioner shall have refused, declined, or omitted to act, as the case may be. And if the Commissioner so refusing, declining, or omitting to act, shall also wilfully omit to state the grounds upon which he has so done, in such manner that the said statement may be referred to such friendly sovereign or state, together with the report of such other Commissioner, then such sovereign or state shall decide, *ex parte*, upon the said report alone, and His Britannic Majesty, and the Government of the United States, engage to consider the decision of such friendly sovereign or state, to be final and conclusive on all the matters so referred.

ARTICLE V.

Whereas neither that point of the Highlands lying due north from the source of the river St. Croix, designated in the former Treaty of Peace between the two powers as the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, nor the north-westernmost head of Connecticut River, have yet been acertained; and whereas that part of the boundary line between the dominions of the two powers, which extends from the source of the river St. Croix, directly north to the above-mentioned north-west angle of Nova Scotia, thence along the said Highlands which divide those rivers, that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean to the north-

westernmost head of Connecticut River, thence down along the middle of that river to the 45th degree of north latitude, thence by a line due west on said latitude until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraguy, has not yet been surveyed, it is agreed that for these several purposes, two Commissioners shall be appointed, sworn and authorized, to act exactly in the manner directed with respect to those mentioned in the next preceding article, unless otherwise specified in the present article. The said Commissions shall meet at St. Andrews, in the province of New Brunswick, and shall have power to adjourn to such other place or places as they shall think fit. The said Commissioners shall have power to ascertain and determine the points above mentioned, in conformity with the provisions of the said Treaty of Peace of 1783; and shall cause the boundary aforesaid, from the source of the river St. Croix to the river Iroquois or Cataraguy, to be surveyed and marked according to the said provisions; the said Commissioners shall make a map of the said boundary, and annex to it a declaration under their hands and seals, certifying it to be the true map of the said boundary, and particularizing the latitude and longitude of the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, of the north-westernmost head of Connecticut River, and of such other points of the said boundary as they may deem proper. And both parties agree to consider such map and declaration as finally and conclusively fixing the said boundary. And in the event of the said two Commissioners differing, or both, or either of them, refusing, declining or wilfully omitting to act, such reports, declarations, or statements, shall be made by them, or either of them, and such reference to a friendly sovereign or state shall be made in all respects, as in the latter part of the fourth article is contained, and in as full a manner as if the same was herein repeated.

ARTICLE VI.

Whereas by the former Treaty of Peace, that portion of the boundary of the United States from the point where the 45th degree of north latitude strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraguy, to the Lake Superior, was declared to be "along the middle of said river into Lake Ontario, "through the middle of said Lake, until it strikes the com- "munication by water between that Lake and Lake Erie, "thence along the middle of said communication into Lake "Erie, through the middle of said Lake, until it arrives at "the water communication into the Lake Huron, thence "through the middle of said Lake to the water communi- "cation between that Lake and Lake Superior;" And whereas doubts have arisen what was the middle of the said River, Lakes, and Water Communications, and whether certain Islands lying in the same were within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty or of the United States. In order, therefore, finally to decide these doubts, they shall be referred to two Commissioners, to be appointed, sworn, and authorised, to act exactly in the manner directed with respect to those mentioned in the next preceding article, unless otherwise specified in this present article. The said Commissioners shall meet, in the first instance, at Albany, in the state of New York, and shall have power to adjourn to such other place or places as they shall think fit. The said Commissioners shall, by a report or declaration, under their hands and seals, designate the boundary through the said river, lakes, and water communications, and decide to which of the two Contracting Parties the several Islands lying within the said rivers, lakes, and water communications, do respectively belong, in conformity with the true intent of the said Treaty of 1783. And both parties agree to consider such designation and decision as final and conclusive. And in the event of the said two Commissioners differing, or both or either of them refusing, declining, or wilfully omitting to act, such reports, declarations, or statements, shall be made by them, or either of them, and such reference to a friendly sovereign or state shall be made, in all respects, as in the latter part of the fourth article is contained, and in as full a manner as if the same was herein repeated.

ARTICLE VII.

It is further agreed, that the said two last-mentioned Commissioners, after they shall have executed the duties assigned to them in the preceding article, shall be, and they are hereby authorised upon their oaths, impartially to fix and determine, according to the true intent of the said Treaty of Peace of 1783, that part of the boundary between the dominions of the two Powers, which extends from the water communication between Lake Huron and Lake Superior, to the most north-western point of the Lake of the Woods; to decide to which of the two Parties the several Islands lying in the lakes, water communications, and rivers, forming the said boundary, do respectively belong, in conformity with the true intent of the said Treaty of Peace of 1783, and to cause such parts of the said boundary as require it, to be surveyed and marked. The said Commissioners shall by a report or declaration, under their hands and seals, designate the boundary aforesaid, state their decision on the points thus referred to them, and particularize the latitude and longitude of the most north-western point of the Lake of the Woods, and of such other parts of the said boundary as they may deem proper. And both parties agree to consider such designation and decision as final and conclusive. And in the event of the said two Commissioners differing, or both, or either of them, refusing, declining, or wilfully omitting to act, such reports, declarations, or statements, shall be made by them, or either of them, and such reference to a friendly sovereign or state shall be made in all respects as in the latter part of the fourth article is contained, and in as full a manner as if the same was herein repeated.

ARTICLE VIII.

The several boards of two Commissioners mentioned in the four preceding articles shall respectively have power to appoint a secretary, and to employ such surveyors or other persons as they shall judge necessary. Duplicates of all their respective reports, declarations, statements, and decisions, and of their accounts, and of the journal of their proceedings, shall be delivered by them to the agents of His Britannic Majesty, and to the

agents of the United States who may be respectively appointed and authorized to manage the business on behalf of their respective governments. The said Commissioners shall be respectively paid in such manner as shall be agreed between the two contracting parties, such agreement being to be settled at the time of the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty. And all other expences attending the said commissions shall be defrayed equally by the two parties. And in the case of death, sickness, resignation, or necessary absence, the place of every such Commissioner respectively, shall be supplied in the same manner as such Commissioner was first appointed, and the new Commissioner shall take the same oath or affirmation, and do the same duties.

It is further agreed between the two contracting parties, that in case any of the islands mentioned in any of the preceding articles which were in the possession of one of the parties prior to the commencement of the present war between the two countries, should, by the decision of any of the boards of Commissioners aforesaid, or of the sovereign or state so referred to as in the four next preceding articles contained, fall within the dominions of the other party, all grants of land made previous to the commencement of the war by the party having had such possession, shall be as valid as if such island or islands, had by such decision or decisions, been adjudged to be within the dominions of the party having had such possession.

ARTICLE IX.

The United States of America engage to put an end, immediately after the ratification of the present Treaty, to hostilities with all the tribes or nations of Indians with whom they may be at war at the time of such ratification, and forthwith to restore to such tribes or nations respectively, all the possessions, rights, and privileges which they may have enjoyed, or been entitled to in 1811, previous to such hostilities. Provided always, that such tribes or nations shall agree to desist from all hostilities against the United States of America, their citizens and subjects, upon the ratification of the present Treaty being notified to such tribes or nations, and shall so desist accordingly.

And His Britannic Majesty engages on His part, to put an end immediately after the ratification of the present Treaty, to hostilities with all the tribes or nations of Indians with whom he may be at war at the time of such ratification, and forthwith to restore to such tribes or nations respectively, all the possessions, rights, and privileges, which they may have enjoyed or been entitled to in 1811, previous to such hostilities. Provided always, that such tribes or nations shall agree to desist from all hostilities against His Britannic Majesty and his subjects, upon the ratification of the present Treaty being notified to such tribes or nations, and shall so desist accordingly.

ARTICLE X.

Whereas the traffic in slaves is irreconcilable with the principles of humanity and justice, and whereas both His Majesty and the United States are desirous of continuing their efforts to promote its entire abolition, it is hereby agreed that both the contracting parties shall use their best endeavours to accomplish so desirable an object.

ARTICLE XI.

This Treaty, when the same shall have been ratified on both sides without alteration by either of the Contracting Parties, and the ratifications mutually exchanged, shall be binding on both parties, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington, in the space of four months from this day, or sooner if practicable.

In faith whereof, we the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed this Treaty, and have thereunto affixed our seals.

Done in triplicate at Ghent, the twenty-fourth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and fourteen.

(L. S.) GAMBIER.
(L. S.) H. GOULBURN.
(L. S.) WM. ADAMS.
(L. S.) J. QUINCEY ADAMS.
(L. S.) J. A. BAYARD.
(L. S.) H. CLAY.
(L. S.) JON. RUSSELL.
(L. S.) ALBERT GALLATIN.

ERRATA.

VOL. I.

P. 42. Col. 2. near the top, for "pilot *Horentin,*" read "*Florentine* pilot."
124. Col. 1. middle, for 1404 read 1494.
126. Col. 1. near the bottom, for "*lana* wood," read "*lance* wood."
Col. 2. middle, for "*a* lieutenant governor," read "*or* lieutenant governor."
Col. 2. below the middle, for "there are *four* regular ports," read "there are *five*," &c.: and, two lines beyond, after "the Caicos," read "Crooked Island."
246. Col. 2. Near the top, at the word "*Nueva California,*" (which dele) there is a multiplied transposition of lines. The line, consisting of one word "*Joseph*" is out of its place one line downwards: and the words which precede it, "*It is a long and narrow ex-*" ought to be moved five lines further down.

VOL. II.

P. 180. Col. 2. Fourteen lines from the bottom, at the beginning of the new matter, read [*This island was captured by the British in* 1794; *but, after being two months in their possession, fell into the hands of the French Republicans;*" and, for [*An attack was made on this island,*" read "*Again, an attack was made on it.*"
474. Col. 1. In the enumeration of the settlements, &c. for "Trou *du* Chat," read "Trou *au* Chat."—also for "*Lamcutin,*" read "*Lamentin.*"
Col. 2. Ten lines from the bottom, instead of the new matter [" *but it was,*" &c. down to "*February,* 1809," read *a period,* and afterwards, "[*This island, in the year* 1762, *had fallen into the hands of the British, but was given back at the peace of the following year. It was captured in* 1794 *by Grey and Jarvis, and remained in our possession during the remainder of that war. It was again taken by Prevost, in* 1809.]"

VOL. III.

388. Col. 1. line 6 from the top: for "*torvid*" read "*temperate.*"

VOL. V.

P. 106. Col. 1. Ten lines from the bottom, for "inferior to that of the *enemy,*" read "inferior to that of the *British.*"

GENERAL APPENDIX

TO

THOMPSON'S ALCEDO,

OR

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL

DICTIONARY

OF

AMERICA AND THE WEST INDIES;

FORMING

A VOCABULARY OF PROVINCIAL AND SPANISH TERMS,

AND

A COMPENDIOUS NATURAL HISTORY OF THAT HEMISPHERE.

PREFACE

TO THE

VOCABULARY OF PROVINCIAL TERMS, AND OF THE NATURAL HISTORY OF AMERICA AND THE WEST INDIES;

OR,

GENERAL APPENDIX TO THOMPSON'S ALCEDO.

We promised, in the Prospectus for publishing by subscription this Dictionary, to give, as a necessary Appendix, an explanation of the several peculiar Terms made use of in those regions.—Of these Terms some are of Spanish, and particularly of Andalucian root; and have become degenerated by a mixture with the different Indian idioms; some are of Indian origin, and have obtained a mal-pronunciation by the Europeans. Although we have given an explanation of many in the different Articles under which they occur, we have thought it prudent not to make this practice general; from the frequent repetition which would arise, and from the conviction that the uniting them under alphabetical arrangement, would best answer the purposes of illustration.

The adoption of this plan has led us imperceptibly to the formation of a complete detail of the Plants, Birds, and Animals, found in America, together with a brief Treatise on their many virtues and properties; and we have arranged the whole under the Linnæan system. But in spite of our utmost diligence, and all the advantages of frequent communications with the Dr. D. Casimiro de Ortega, first Professor in the Royal Botanical Garden at this Court, a man who may be looked upon as the restorer of this science in Spain, we have fallen short of our wishes in the explanation of several articles; and this not only from the great inattention with which this part of history has been considered in America, but from the confusion and want of technical arrangement in those authors who may have given it their attention. Thus we have been compelled to adopt the names and terms exhibited by various naturalists; such as Marcgraff, Pison, Sloane, Molina, Bomare, &c. observing, however, that wherever the initials of these shall not appear, the Linnæan arrangement is to be supposed to prevail.

The above statement, it is presumed, is enough to convince the public mind how great have been the industry and pains employed in the perfecting our labours; and such conviction will be strengthened when we shall bring to light *a Supplement* of additions and corrections* which have been sent us from all parts. Thus, whilst on the score of popularity there can be nothing left to desire, we shall always live grateful to the Spanish public for the high estimation in which they have held this Work; an estimation most duly accounted for; and to which no further testimony can be wanting, when it is considered how much the volumes have already been in request, and how many able persons have lent their assistance towards rendering them complete.

ANTONIO DE ALCEDO.

[In addition to the translation of the Catalogue of technical terms above mentioned, I have, as I promised in my Advertisement in the first volume, added an explanation of others, which, as well of Spanish as of American origin, would have been unintelligible to English readers; and these are inserted, like all the rest of the new matter in this Dictionary, between brackets; as are also a very considerable number of new articles relating to natural history, and the various illustrations on the original text it has been thought necessary to communicate.

G. A. THOMPSON.

* The above-mentioned Supplement has been carefully incorporated with the body of the Work.
TRANSLATOR.]

PROVINCIAL TERMS, &c.

(N. B. That which is contained in brackets, consists of new matter.)

[*ABACORA*,—A fish peculiar to the rivers of S. America, and to which no resemblance is found in other parts of the world.]

[*Abeja del Mar*, or *Marine Bee*.—The name of a bird of S. America.]

Achote, or *Achiote*. (*Bixa orillana*.)—The heart-leaved anotta, indigenous to America. The lower class of people are accustomed to mingle it with their chocolate. It grows amongst the Mitella diphyla, or double-leaved *Mitella*, of the genus *Decandria digynia*. Its calix consists of five segments. The *corola* of as many petals inserted in the calix. The *capsula* of two equal *valvulas*. The fruit of this tree lies between two small leaves: it contains small seeds, of a vermilion colour, and is of a conical figure, being enclosed in a soft prickly husk, about three inches long, and makes an excellent paste. It is also a very useful ingredient in sauces, and serves the place of spice. It is very plentiful in both North and South America; and is carried to Europe in considerable quantities, where it is used for dyeing. It is the *Rocou* of the French, and the *Urucu* amongst Botanists.

Achupala. (*Eryngium aquaticum*.)—A plant of Peru, which has stalks resembling those of the savin. The Indians, if the stem be tender, use it for salad, as also the buds. It is very partial to cold situations. Hence it is no where to be met with but on bleak heaths, or on the summits of the Andes, which are frequently covered with snow.

Acre.—The ordinary land measure amongst the English and Dutch colonies in America. This measure differs according to the statutes in different nations; in general, however, it consists of 160 square perches.

Acure, or *Aguti*. (*Mus Aguti*.)—A quadruped, about the size of a hare. Its tail is short, its mouth and teeth resemble those of a rabbit, and its hair is of a dark-brown colour. Its habitation, in general, is a small cave, which it digs in the midst of a thicket, or at the foot of a tree. The sportsmen usually hunt it with dogs. Its flesh is edible, and as delicate as that of a rabbit. They are frequently domesticated, and trained up to feed at the table.

[*Adelantado*.—The Lord Lieutenant of a province, who represents the King's person, and is supreme in his command, both civil and military. It is now, generally, a mere title of rank.]

[*Admapu*.—A certain legislative order amongst the native Chilians, or rather Araucanians, by which polygamy is allowed.]

Aetites.—The eagle-stone, well known in Europe. There is a bed of this sort of stone in the province of Huamalies, in the kingdom of Peru. This stone is of a feruginous nature, and has a cavity within, sometimes full and sometimes empty, and of various figures. Some are round or oval; others again are of a triangular, square, or flat form: the superficies is sometimes smooth and sometimes rough. It was an ancient opinion, that it derived its name eagle-stone from being found in an eagle's

nest; and naturalists of a more ancient date have attributed to it the singular property of causing the eagle to lay, of facilitating the parturition of the egg, and preventing abortion; but these are idle conjectures of the imagination. This stone is composed of many different flakes, of a deep red colour, which are separated with the greatest facility. It sometimes consists of a soft matter, and incloses a moveable nut, which some term callinus.

[*Agave.*—An herb of S. America. In the provinces of Caracas and Cumana the agave cubensis (odorata Persoon) is called *maguey de Cocuy.* Its stocks are sometimes found loaded with flowers from 38 to 45 English feet in height. At Caracas the *agave Americana* is called *maguey de Cocuiza.*—HUMBOLT.]

Agi. (*Capsicum.*)—A kind of pepper growing in Peru and Tierra Firme. The species, as well as the figure and size of this article, is various: the most distinguished are the *aznaucho*, *conguito*, and *pico de paxaro.* Some kinds are of a most active stimulant nature; they are reckoned amongst the principal ingredients in all sauces; nothing in those parts is ever esteemed palatable when capsicum is excluded: preserved in vinegar it is esteemed a delicious pickle. In some parts this commodity forms a very considerable branch of commerce. It grows spontaneously in wild and uncultivated soils. In New Spain it goes by the name of chile.

Agiaco.—A delicious pottage, very common amongst the inhabitants of Cartagena, in Nueva Granada. It is composed of an herb of the same name, which resembles the Indian sorrel.

[*Agouti.*—An animal found in S. America.]

Agraz, or *Colorado.*—A plant which shoots up like a pliable reed, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, in Nueva Granada. It grows in great abundance in Macuro. Cut off at one extremity, and blown into at the other, it discharges a quantity of water, of which is made a collyrium for distempers in the eyes. The application of this collyrium has repeatedly produced the most beneficial effects; it clears the dimness of the eye, and dissipates the humours which may have been collected over that organ.

Aguacate. (*Laurus Persea.*)—Alligator pear, abiferous evergreen: its fruit in size and colour resembles that of the don guindo, but the neck somewhat longer; its pulp is of a light green colour, and soft like butter; its taste very insipid, for which reason it is never used but with salt; its peel is tough, like that of a dried orange, its stone larger, of an elliptical figure, and terminates in a smooth point, of a chesnut colour; if rubbed upon a white linen cloth, it gives it a cinnamon colour, both permanent and beautiful. The Peruvians call it palta.

Aguarica.—A term applied to all scented waters in the kingdom of Peru. Amber is generally one of the chief ingredients of these liquids. Aquarica is used to sprinkle linen, and to infuse into some kinds of food; but it is principally used to fumigate the churches on grand festivals: it is poured into a spherical silver vessel, with small holes, for exhalation; then placed over a pan of fire made for the purpose, it emits a delightful fragrance. This practice prevails throughout South America, and the quantity of water thus consumed is very great.

Aguay.—A tree, which it seems very probable is that Linnæus describes under the name of *Cervera fŏliis ovatis*, and Bomare under that of *Ahovai.* The leaf of this tree resembles those of the African laurel rose; the flower is yellow and monopetalous, divided into five oblique lobes, with five fibres and one pistil. The first resembles the pear, and encloses a dark triangular nut, which is very hard. The Indians wear these nuts hung round their legs to make a noise by rattling one against the other. Father Labat calls this the serpent nut, because, says he, "a cataplasm of these nuts are an effectual remedy for the bite of those animals." But Mr. Lemery says, that this description, if applied to the trees which he has seen, is by no means accurate. The Indians of Tapueyes make use of the bark of this tree for sandals.

Aguililla.—Is a horse of extraordinary swiftness; in general it travels a league in less than a quarter of an hour, but at the same time is so uneasy in its motions, that no one, unless enured to it, can endure its shaking. In South America it is taught when very young. The Indians in the kingdom of Chile, and the inhabitants of Sta. Maria, in the kingdom of Granada, are very dextrous in training them up to their swift pace.

[*Ahogato.*—A fish of the kingdom of Chile.]

[*Aillaregue.*—The name amongst the Arancanians, signifying province.]

[*Ajonjoli.*—A little, small, bright seed, common in S. America, but little known in England, called in Latin *Sessamum.*]

Alanēs. (*Cervus alces.*)—A deer in New Mexico, about the height of a mule; its head is large, its neck short, its lips, and especially the under one, broad and thick, the mouth spacious, its ears are long, like the ass, its tail short, and it stands higher behind than before; its hair is strong, and about three inches in length, its colour grey, and its horns palmated, drooping downwards, and garnished with antlers, and furcations on the outward parts. This animal is fierce and savage.

Albahaquilla.—See Culén.

[*Alberja.*—A sort of vetch found in S. America.]

Albures.—A game at cards like the game of hazard, to which the inhabitants of New Spain are much addicted.

[*Alcalde del Crimen.*—Judge of criminals, who also has out of his tribunal an ordinary jurisdiction, in the territory to which it belongs.]

[*Alcaldía mayor.*—The district of a chief magistrate of any town, or of Recorder, where there be a civil government.]

[*Alcaparossa.*—The same as caparossa, which is coperas or vitriol.]

Alcaran. (*Scorpio Americanus.*)—An insect which infests humid warm countries. They are propagated in houses, magazines, and dung-hills. The body of the insect is about the size of an almond; its tail consists of nine diminutive fleshy bodies, about the size of a mustard seed, of an oblong figure, and in the last of these small bodies is inserted a crooked sting, of astonishing sharpness; in the forepart it has two small claws, like the lobster; its colour is a dark brown. When it wants to sting, it draws up its tail in the form of a circle, lashes it out with incredible velocity, and fixes the sting. The heat caused by the prick of these insects is extraordinary, and is very often attended with fever; there are some kinds so venomous, that their sting will sometimes kill a person, but those that breed in houses are not of this species. They are so common that there is no avoiding them; very often when a person rises in the morning he will find them in his clothes.

Alcaravan. (*Tringa Ocrophus.*)—A fowl well known in Europe by the name of bittern, and very common in America. It is somewhat less, but in other respects resembles the stork; its plumage brown, its beak and legs very long; when tamed, it becomes a very useful domestic, by clearing the house of all troublesome insects, and so great is the velocity with which it runs, that it is impossible for any insect to escape it.

[*Alcatraz.*—A sea fowl, like a sea-gull. *Arabick.*]

Alcavala.—This droit was accorded to the King of Spain in 1342, to furnish the expenses of the wars against the Moors. The concession was first limited to three years: it was afterwards prolonged to the time that Algesiras was under the Spanish dominion. This droit was originally five per cent. and at Burgos, in 1366, ten per cent. Being then considered a regular and fixed duty, established by custom and the laws of the old kingdom, we find it, agreeably with the sentiments of Baldo, who says, "it may, incontestably, be established in all the possessions hereafter united to the Spanish empire," adopted in America, though, for obvious reasons, not till some time after the several conquests; accordingly, it was established in Mexico in 1547, and in Peru in 1591. In the new world, it was at first only two per cent. and afterwards rose in small proportions, according to the exigencies of affairs. In Tierra Firme it was, for a long time, at two per cent. but it has been encreased for nearly fifty years back to five. The *Alcavala* is a droit upon every article sold, moveable or immoveable, and is most rigorously exacted. Every sort of merchandize, the production of the country, animals, fowl, eggs, vegetables, fodder, purchases of land, every thing exposed to sale, is subject to this droit.

Alco.—The native dog of the New Hemisphere, nor does it seem to have differed greatly from that of the Old; except that it possessed not the power of barking. The natives of Hispaniola, like those of Otaheite, fattened them with care, and accounted their flesh a great delicacy. "In St. Domingo" (says Acosta) "the dogs of Europe have multiplied so exceedingly, that at this time (1587) they are

a nuisance and a terror to the inhabitants, and a price is set on their heads as on wolves in Old Spain At first there were no dogs on this island, but a small mute creature resembling a dog, with a nose like that of a fox, which the natives called alco. The Indians were so fond of these little animals, that they carried them on their shoulders wherever they went, or nourished them in their bosoms."

Alerce. (*Pinus Cupressoides.*)—A large tree growing in the kingdom of Chile; the wood is very hard, and resembles the large European fir, but is of a distinct species. It sometimes grows to such a size, that it measures ninety feet in circumference. The wood is chiefly used in building, on account of its durability. It is transported from the Island of Chiloe, where it principally abounds, and forms a very lucrative branch of commerce to Peru. One of these trees contains, in general, from six to eight hundred boards, twenty feet long, and half a yard broad. The inhabitants of these islands are so dexterous in the partition of these trees, that they will divide them without the least waste. Molina says, that hogsheads made of this wood will preserve water during a voyage at sea free from corruption.

[*Alfalfa.*—Three-leaved or clover grass. *Arabick.*]

Alferez Real.—Formerly one who carried the standard when the king went to battle in person. His office was to have charge of the royal troops in the king's absence.

Alicuya.—A small insect generated amongst the herbs in Peru, and very prejudicial to the flocks. It eats its way into the inside of a beast, settles in its liver, and causes an ulceration, of which vast numbers die. This insect chiefly infests the province of Chancay. Salt is the best preservative against it.

[*Aljibe.*—The name given to cisterns in S. America.]

Aljosucha.—A plant in the kingdom of Peru, which is a singular preservative against tertian agues, by rubbing it between the hands and applying it to the nostrils of the patient. It is particularly abundant in the province of Luya and Chillaos, and some other parts.

Alpaca. (*Camelus Pacos,*) also *Paco.*—A quadruped of Peru and Chilé. A subaltern species of the camel kind; it only differs from that animal in its size and compactness. The neck of this animal is long, the head small, the ears large, the eyes round and big, the beard short, and the upper lip a little open; its legs are somewhat longer than proportionable to its bulk, its hoof bipartite or cloven, and its tail long; its hair is long, and somewhat coarser than that of the vicuña, but fit for spinning; in the parts of generation it also resembles the camel, male and female. Like the ruminating animal, it has four ventricles. The second contains between two ventricles, of which it is composed, a number of cavities calculated to deposit water. This animal, like the camel, is domable, and will carry from seven to nine stone; it will fall on its knees for the convenient reception and exoneration of its burthen. The shape and disposition of the hoof, and the closeness of the hair, will admit neither shoe nor harness; they are slow, but sure-footed even in the most rugged roads. Notwithstanding the great resemblance which the paco bears to the camel, it has some peculiarities which distinguish it from that animal. Destined to inhabit the mountain, amidst snow and ice, it has received from nature many advantages which enable it to endure its hard fate. Like the quadrupeds of the polar regions, it has a great thickness of fat between the skin and the flesh; and so great is the fluxion of blood in its veins, that the most intense colds are incapable of penetrating it; the enormous load of fat with which it is endowed, prevents the blood from being consumed by the excessive heat of the sun. In the ventricle are formed five bezoar stones. The under mandible, like that of the camel, is furnished with six incisors, two canine teeth, and several grinders; but in the upper jaw, the two first kinds of teeth are wanting, in which respect it differs from the camel kind. The ears are pointed, and better made than those of the camel; its nose is simple, its neck straight and well proportioned, its tail beautiful, and adorned with long hair, as soft as wool; it makes a noise like the neighing of a horse. When irritated, it neither assails with its mouth nor heels, but ejects from its nostrils some viscosities on the offender. Some have erroneously asserted, that this viscous matter creates the itch. The time of copulation is about the end of summer, at which time they become very lean, and lose a great quantity of hair. Before copulation they are a long time soliciting, and make bitter lamentations, running about without intermission. The female usually goes six months in a state of pregnancy, and generally brings forth but one at a time; she has only two teats, but abundance of milk. The Indians say, that they live about thirty years, and begin to breed about the fourth year. The above description may,

with little alteration, be applied to the Guanaco and Llama. In Peru, they are called Carneros de la tierra, or Sheep of the Earth.

Allullas.—A sort of biscuit of a most delicious taste, and remarkably white, made in the territory of Ambato, in the kingdom of Quito. They are held in such estimation, that they are not only sought for in the capital, but even exported to Peru and Tierra Firma, and they preserve their excellency many months. Though many have been the attempts to bring them to equal perfection in other places, yet no one has succeeded in this attempt, though flower, water, and the baker have been procured to ensure success; it is therefore, without doubt, to the influence of the climate that they owe their flavour.

Almadana, or *Almadeneta.*—An iron or brazen mallet used in the mine engines of Peru to bray the metal.

Almopez.—A large leathern case used by travellers for the preservation of their mattresses; it is about the length of a bed, and the aperture is almost from end to end, for the more easy reception of the mattress; and after it is put in, they roll it up and bind it with a cord. This is customary in every part of America.

Aloes. (*Aloes Americana.*)—This kind is classed amongst Hexandria monogeneous plants. Its distinguishing characteristics are—an upright corolla, open at the top, with a nectarine liquid in the bottom; the fibres spring out of the receptacle; the leaves are thick and succulent, terminating in a point, and generally very transparent; the fruit is oblong and cylindrical; it lies in three pods, which contain flat semicircular seeds. There are seven or eight species, distinguished by the perfoliata or thorough-leaved, variegated, disticha, spiral viscous, dwarf, and retuse. This last, for its beauty, far excels the others. In medicine there are two kinds, viz. the soceotrine and hepatic. The manner of preparing it is as follows: the leaves are pressed, and the juice spontaneously oozes out, which is exposed to the sun to inspissate till it comes to a proper consistence. It is a bitter cathartic stimulant, and is taken various ways; it purges, attenuates and dissolves vicious humours; and promotes hemoroidal and uterine evacuations, and destroys worms; it is a principal ingredient in the medicine called Elixir Proprietatis, in Angelical pills, in Rudio's cathartic extract, in the aromatical pills of Rufus, of the pharmacopœia of London, in Stahl's extract, and in purgative and vermifuge epithems for children. When left to steep in spirits of wine till the liquid becomes red, it is applied externally as an antiseptic to wounds and ulcers.

[*Alquitram.* (*Naptha.*)—A liquid substance flowing out of the earth, in some places like melted pitch, and therefore, sometimes, improperly taken for pitch; it burns so fierce that it is unquenchable. In some places they use it about ships, instead of pitch and tar.]

[*Am.*—The name given by the native Araucanians to signify the immortal soul.]

Amonanas.—A honey-comb formed under the surface of the earth, in St. Elena and the adjacent countries, in the province of Guay-aquil and kingdom of Quito. The method of finding them is somewhat extraordinary: they take, on a clear day, a vessel of hydromel, wherewith they besprinkle the trees in the thickest part: attracted by the odour, the bees come to lick the hydromel; as soon as they have laden themselves and retired, the watchers follow them till they come to the holes by which they enter; then having dug a hole to the nest, they find considerable quantities of wax, in which they carry on a very lucrative commerce.

Ampalaba.—A name given to the Buho, in the Amazones, and in the territory of Chaco. See *Buho.*

[*Anacardium*, or *Cashew Nut Tree.*—Grows wild in the Island of St. Domingo, and bears a fruit of a strange appearance; the nut resembles a small kidney, grows at the end of the apple which hangs down of the size of a lemon, so that, unlike other fruits, the receptaculum is at the end, and the seed grows on the exterior of the apex. It stains an indelible black, and is an acrid fruit, highly astringent to the mouth.]

[*Anca.*—The name given by the native Araucanians to signify the corruptible body.]

Anchoueta.—A small but delicate fish, which swarms in the lake of Chucuito, in Peru. It is a species of cockerel.

Añil. (*Indigofera añil.*)—A plant which the English call nil, or indigo; it is classed amongst the *diadelphia decandria.* The cup is plain, and the upper margins or filaments of the flower are united. There are six kinds of this indigoferous plant, all peculiar to America. It is called by foreigners indigo. It is about two feet high, and has round leaves; the nil, which is extracted from the leaves, differs from that which is procured from the branches; the first kind is distinguished by the name of Serguise, from the village where it is prepared, situated a few leagues from Surat, in the East Indies. The nil is prepared in the following manner: when it begins to lose its foliage the plant is cut, and the collateral branches are stript off and put into a sufficient quantity of water, in a hogshead, and left in infusion from thirty to thirty-six hours; afterwards the vessel is somewhat inclined, so that the water, which has already assumed a green colour, almost approaching to blue, may ooze into a vat; then with poles, in the form of a pestle, capt with iron, it is agitated and churned till the surface is covered with scum. In this state they infuse a proportionable quantity of oil of olives; one pound of oil is sufficient for the liquor extracted from seventy pounds of nil. After it has undergone this operation, the scum, which resembles the froth of milk, is taken off, and the liquor is left to settle. After it has remained in this state a competent time, the cock is opened, and the water runs off, leaving the dregs in the bottom like lees of wine. The sediment is then put into small linen bags till the water ceases to flow. Finally, it is placed in shallow wooden boxes, and the nil is prepared. When the top of the nil is covered with a dark violet colour, it never fails to be good. There are several methods of judging of its quality: if the surface of the water be of a dark violet colour; if the nil, when stirred gently with a nail, yields a copper colour, rather inclining to red; if when broken it neither moulders into dust, nor discovers any white particles within, it never fails to be of a genuine kind. The second species is prepared in the same manner as the former, with this exception, that the leaves and branches make part of the composition. The best kind comes from Guatemala. When it is melted in the fire like wax, and leaves little recrement behind, it is an evident sign that the nil is good. That which comes from St. Domingo resembles the former, except that it has not such a lively colour, yet for its good quality it holds the second rank; that of Jamaica the third, and that from the windward islands the fourth; all of which are esteemed in proportion to their cleanness and purity. It is used in the composition of dyes, and by washerwomen to give a fine colour to their linen. Painters pound it with white lead, because of itself it turns black; when mixed with yellow, it becomes a beautiful green. Confectioners and apothecaries use it to give a blue colouring to their respective conserves, and to tinge their syrup with violet. In New Spain, they call the plant guiquiliti; or, more properly, huiquilit.

Anime.—A gum or resin, exuding through the pores of a tree, in different parts of America. It is a solid transparent substance, of a pale citrine colour, and exhales a most agreeable odour. It is easily dissolved in water. The French call it curbaril. It is brought from New Spain, the Antilles, and from the province of San Juan de los Llanos, in New Granada, where it chiefly abounds. The same may be said of the lanime, excepting that the tree from which it is extracted is somewhat different. The tree of the anime is very large, and the wood very hard, of a red colour, and admits a very fine polish; it is particularly used for cylinders in sugar-mills; it yields a board about eighteen inches broad, of which they make very elegant furniture; the leaves resemble those of the laurel, and are united two and two together on each stalk, and so transparent, that they seem full of holes; the flowers are leguminous, of a purple colour, and in the shape of a pyramid; the fruit is about a foot long, and covered with a husk like that of the chesnut; this husk is full of small fibres, united and knotted; it is covered with a yellow farina, of a sour taste and disagreeable smell; these filaments envelope a quantity of nuts, which both in size and shape resemble the bean; these nuts are gathered by the Indians, and make very good bread. The inhabitants of some countries use the fumigation of anime for head aches. Dissolved in spirits of wine, it has been found very effectual against the gout and nervous complaints. This gum does not yield any essential oil unless prepared in great quantities. When pure, it is with great difficulty dissolved in spirits of wine, but if mixed with other resins it is more soluble; the water assumes a lightish colour, a circumstance which, according to Mr. Cartheuser, arises from the menstruum depositing a quantity of resinous matter, for which reason he classes it amongst the pure gums.

Anóna.—A plant of the polyandria polyginia kind. The calyx is tripartite, and has six petala; the fruit is round, and contains tubular seeds. There are eight species of anónas: the muricata, squa-

mosa, reticulata, polustris, glabra, triloba, Asiatica, and Africana, which for the most part are indigenous to America.

Anta. (*Tapir Bris.*)—A quadruped peculiar to America, about the size of a calf of two months old; it has neither tail nor horns; its head is large and fleshy; and the trunk, which is only a prolongation of the upper lip, is strong and nervous; its eyes are small; and the body arched, like that of a hog; the hair is short, and of an uniform dark colour; the ears are small, and the tips point forwards; each mandible is furnished with ten incisors, and a great number of grinders, in which respect it differs from ruminating animals; the legs are short, and the fore-feet are armed with four claws, whereof the least is exteriorly united with the other three; in the hind feet it has only three, the middle one always exceeding the other two in length; the nostrils are in the upper lip, which, though it is prolonged like a trunk, as we have already observed, is not longer than the under one, when it wishes to take any thing up, and then it is full of circular wrinkles, notwithstanding it hath the power of stretching it out more than half a foot, brandishing it on either side at pleasure, and bending it downwards to carry food to its mouth; the body is covered with short hair, which is very thin in the flank and lower parts of the body; the hair which covers the neck and forehead, is of a dark-brown colour, about an inch and a half long, and as thick as the bristles of a hog, but soft to the touch; the parts of generation are very large. This animal inhabits the mountains and dry places, yet it frequents marshes and bogs in quest of food, which consists of young sprouts and tender herbs, and fruits which fall from the tree; it generally feeds during the night; it is a great friend to cleanliness, for which reason it crosses some river every morning, or plunges into some lake, to wash itself. In the months of November and December, the females leave their shady mansions to bask in the heat of the sun; then, and only then, can they be found two together. If two males happen to meet, they never retire without occasioning cruel lacerations. The male separates from the female as soon as she is pregnant; she goes ten or eleven months with young, and having chosen an elevated, dry situation, she brings forth one at a parturition. This animal is naturally gentle and timid, and flies the least appearance of contention and danger, excepting about the time of copulation. Though its legs are very short, yet its course is very rapid; when hard pressed by the dogs it makes to some river, and swims with amazing rapidity till it finds a safe asylum on the opposite banks. Its aversion to light makes it retire into the thickets. Its hide is ball-proof, and its flesh insipid, yet the Indians eat it, and when young and tender is by some esteemed very delicate. The anta is found in every part of America, and is sometimes tamed. The Brazilians call it tapir; the Peruvians, ahuara; the Portuguese, anta; and the Spaniards, danta, or great beast. Many have erroneously inferred, from the multiplicity of names, that there are two distinct species. If the reader wishes further information respecting this animal, he may consult the article *Tapir*, in Bomare's Dictionary.

[*Apellaca.*—A denomination amongst the Araucanians for such as bear a part of the same name with another person.]

Aperiades. (*Mus Longipes.*)—A small quadruped, in Buenos Ayres, partaking of the species of the mouse and the rabbit; it is about a foot in length and seven inches in circumference; the hair, in point of colour, resembles that of the hare, but the belly is white, the upper lip is cloven like that of the aforesaid animal, it also resembles it in its teeth and whiskers, but the head is something longer; its ears are round and very small; the legs are only about three inches long, the hind ones something longer than the fore ones; the latter have five toes, covered with a black skin, and armed with short claws; the former have only three, and the middle one something longer than the other two; its flesh resembles that of the rabbit, and though like those animals, it lives in cavities under ground, yet it never opens them itself, but hides amongst stones, for which reason they are taken with great facility. They are generally hunted with ferrets. In Brazil they are called aperéas. The aperiades seems to correspond with the mus sylvestris Americanus of Ray.

Apotoyomátsi, or *Patisiranda.*—A shrub growing in Florida, in North America. The leaves resemble those of the leek, but are longer and thinner; the stem is a species of rush, geniculated and full of pulp; the flower is small, the roots long and slender, and full of round knots, which, when cut and exposed to the sun, become hard, being very black within and white without. The Spaniards call them rosarios de Santa Helena, or beads of St. Helen; the French, palenotes. The Indians hold them in great esteem, and say they possess many excellent qualities.

Aradór.—A red insect in Tierra Firme, so small that it is scarcely perceptible. It introduces itself between the skin and the flesh, and as it proceeds, leaves a white track behind, and causes a most extraordinary pricking; for this reason it is called aradór, or ploughman, because it seems to plough.

Araguata.—A large, red, and corpulent ape, bearded like the he-goat, and of a most ugly aspect. It is very common in the province of Guayana, Venezuela, and particularly in Piritu. The Indians esteem its flesh the most delicate of all animal food. This is the red ape of Cayenne of Brisson, and corresponds with the ovarine species. The French call it alovate. Its beard is very long, though the Dictionary of Animals erroneously observes that it differs from the ape of Cayenne, in having no beard.

Arandelas.—The ruffles of a shirt are so called in S. America.

Aranea, or *Spider.*—Among those of Brazil there is one of a remarkably large size, found in the cavities of large trees, which, if disturbed, inflicts a wound so small as to be scarcely visible, but which produces a bluish swelling, extremely painful, and in some instances said to occasion death. One species, the *aranea avicularia venatoria*, spins balls much larger than those of the spiders of Europe, in which it deposits its eggs, the substance of which resembles the finest silk.

Aranoake.—A term given by the English of Virginia to tobacco of inferior quality, which they seldom transport to England, and generally dispose of to the Dutch. [The English spell it Oronoko.]

Ardilla Volante. (*Mus Ponticus*, or *Sciurus Americanus.*)—A squirrel found in the province of Louisiana and Florida, which leaps from one tree to another with great agility. It receives the air between the membranes which connect the fore and hind feet together, like the sail of a ship; its figure is similar to that of the European squirrel, but it is something less, and more tame. In the year 1788, the Countess of Aronda had one in the court of Madrid.

Arepa.—A sort of pie, the crust of which is made of Indian wheat, and the stuffing of hog's flesh. The black women sell it in all their shops at Carthagena, and it is the usual breakfast of all classes of people.

[*Arietoe.*—The public dance of the native Indians of Cuba and Hispaniola, in which they celebrate their historical actions.]

Armadillo. (*Dasypus vel Cota Phrastus.*)—A quadruped, so called because the upper part of the body is covered with a cuirass of shell, composed of ooze and bones in shelves which lie fitly, one over the other. The particular size cannot be determined, some measuring six, others thirteen inches in length, but they are generally the largest in the hot climates, between the tropics. In its shape, in the fat which lies over the flesh, and in the skin which covers the lower parts of the body, it resembles a young pig; the head is large, and the snout short; the eyes, small; the ears, bare; the tail, long, like that of the mole, but scaly; it has no teeth, except grinders; the number of bands is different, in the different species; the shell, which covers the body like that of the tortoise, consists of two pieces divided into several bands, which lie over each other, which the animal has the power of contracting or extending at pleasure. The female is very prolific, bringing forth four every month. The flesh is as delicate as that of a sucking pig. In Chile, it is called coveer; in the province of Cuyo, quiriquimacho; in Brazil, tatu; and in Guayana, cachicamo. In the valleys in the Andes, there are found four species of armadillos, called pichi, piloso, mulita, and bolo. The first kind is the dasypus quadricinctus, about six inches long, and has four bands; the second kind, or dasypus octocinctus, is about seven inches long, and has eight bands; the third kind, or dasypus undecim cinctus, is somewhat larger than the former, with eleven bands, and is called mulita, from the extraordinary length of its ears; the fourth and last kind, dasypus octodecemcinettes, exceeds the other three in size, being thirteen inches long from the end of the snout to the root of the tail, and has eighteen bands. This last is the species which the Count de Buffon describes under the appellation of quiriquinchi. The armadillo of Peru rolls itself into a ball when surprised by the sportsman, and will often defeat all his projects by rolling down precipices; but this artifice fails it in the plain fields, where it is taken with great facility, for if a live coal be applied to the shell, it is forced to unfold itself and re-assume its natural shape. The three first species, when pursued, run with great rapidity, but always in a direct line, for the construction of the shell prevents it from turning easily aside. When it finds itself almost overtaken by the pursuer, it instantly digs a hole in the earth, where it holds so fast with its fore-feet that it is useless to

attempt pulling them out by force. Practice has suggested the application of a burning coal, which never fails bringing them out.

Arracacha.—A sort of American fruit. The leaves of the plant are large and spotted; the roots thick and soft, sometimes of a red, at others of a white colour. It is most abundant in the territory of Villa de Leiba, in New Grenada.

[*Arroba.*—A Spanish measure, containing 25 pounds Spanish, or 2,500 pounds English; the English pound being one hundredth part of the Spanish. In liquid measure, it is equal to eight azumbres, about 12 quarts English.]

[*Asbestos.*—A cotton of S. America, known sometimes by the designation of the incorruptible.]

[*Asiento.*—The territory or place in which mines are situate.]

Asnaucho.—A sort of capsicum, about the size and shape of a small Flanders radish; it is a strong stimulant, but has at the same time a very delicious savour, for which reason it is eaten at all tables, and used in all pickles, in the kingdom of Peru and Tierra Firme.

[*Asphalta.*—A solid, bituminous substance found swimming on the surface of lakes.]

[*Auras,* or *Gallinazas.*—A sort of crows in the W. Indies, wonderfully swift and sharp sighted; are good to keep a town clean, for they will leave no dead thing in the street. They perch at night abroad upon the trees or rocks; in the morning they repair to towns, and stand watching on the tops of the highest houses for their prey. Their young are white, and afterwards turn black.]

[*Aurum merum.* (*Osmier of Monteroy.*)—An article in great request with the Indians of Nootka, and employed in the trade of otter skins.]

Auyama.—A large root, resembling the yuca, or adanis-needle.

Ayate.—A cotton garment with which the slaves of New Spain are clothed.

[*Ayuda de Paroquia.*—Chapel of ease.]

[*Azibar Aloes.*—It is made of the juice of a herb called the Portuguese *herba barbosa,* whereof there is a great store in Cambaya, Bergala, and other parts, but that of the island of Socotora is most valued, and therefore called *Aloes Succotrina.* This plant is not unlike our house-leek, and, in Spain, the common people will hang one of them, with the root and all, in their house; it has such a natural moisture, that it holds green all the year. The best aloes are those that are cleanest, closest, and freest from sand or dirt, and of a liver-colour, brittle, that dissolves soonest, and is bitterest; it is hot in the first degree, and dry in the third. It stops bloody fluxes, dries up inveterate sores, fresh wounds, and brings flesh upon wounds, particularly in the privy parts. It is put to many other uses, which may be seen at large in *Acosta's Nat. Hist. of the East Indies.* See *Aloes.*]

B.

Babagui.—A bird in the new kingdom of Grenada. It is small, spotted with yellow and black; and the sweetness of its note surpasses that of the canary and goldfinch.

Bacia.—The diminutive of sebastiana, commonly used in Peru. [It is a kind of vase.]

Badea.—A pumpkin, or fruit, which grows in the jurisdiction of Daule, province of Guayaquil, and kingdom of Quito. The plant, which produces it, throws out large stems necessary for supporting the fruit, which is very weighty, and of the size and shape of a common melon without furrows, smooth, of a bright yellow colour, and fragrant smell; the pulp is covered with a thin, tender rind, and is about two or three inches thick, and the inside contains a quantity of water of an orange colour, far superior to the pulp in taste and flavour; the seed is covered with a soft substance, of a very agreeable taste.

Bagre. (*Silurus Bagre*).—A fish which abounds in most of the rivers of America; the skin is destitute of scales, smooth, grey on both sides, and whitish on the belly; its appearance is similar to that of the small specks in the spawn of frogs; the head is large with respect to the body, which is of various sizes; the snout flat, and furnished with barbs, like those of the barbel; the bone in the side fin is not poisonous, as is affirmed by those in the other species of bagres; it is of a yellowish colour, and one of the most delicious fishes, with very few bones.

Bainilla. (*Epidendron Vainilla.*)—A plant of the thickness of a small vine branch; the stem is of a clear green, very smooth, bearing few leaves, which it puts forth at knots, at the distance of a quarter of a yard from each other; the leaves are like those of the pear tree, but something larger; it is very succulent, and easily broken. The method of propagating this plant, is by tying branches of it to a large tree, which must of its own nature be moist and porous; and without any other care, not even putting it in the ground, it grows and twines round the tree, like ivy; and in the space of two or three years, it begins to produce fruit in the highest part of the tree, so that it is no easy matter to gather the fruit: the instrument used for this purpose is a long pole, with a hook at one end. In the months of December and January, when the fruit is green, but at its full size, it has no smell, and resembles the capsula of the French bean; it is then exposed to the sun to dry, and fit it for preservation, and in a few days it gradually changes from green to a dark colour, distilling a balm or oil, so fragrant that it is insupportable, and stupefies the head. The manner of seasoning this fruit is very troublesome, for if the balm is not sufficiently extracted, it grows sour and corrupts, and if it evaporates too much, it loses its odour and virtue. As soon as it is known to be thoroughly prepared, it is made into small bunches, each bunch consisting of nearly fifty pods, tied with a fine thread, called in New Spain ojolote, because made of the bark of a tree of this name, and packed up in boxes to send to Spain and other parts, particularly Africa, where it is held in great esteem: each pod contains upwards of a thousand of almost imperceptible seeds. This fruit forms a considerable branch of trade in some provinces of New Spain and Guatemala, and is also produced in Peru. It is customary to mix it with chocolate to give the latter an agreeable flavour; it is analeptic, cephalic, and stomachic. The English esteem it as a singular specific for hypochondriacal diseases; but it must be used with great moderation, in spirits of wine. All the resinous substance may be extracted, and a few spoonsful of this essence will give colour, and a very agreeable taste, to spirituous liquors.

Bajaréque.—A term in architecture in the building of houses, in the province of Guayaquil. It is so called when upon the foundation, the depth of which varies according to the soil, are constructed angles and divisions with strong beams, whose ends are fixed six geometrical feet within the foundation, leaving large spaces for the walls, which are stopped up with traverse beams, and covered on the outside with small joists of light wood, interwoven with very small reeds or osiers, resembling those called chagllas, and are afterwards overlaid with plaster and whitewash. From the top of the walls they throw out conduits for carrying off the water, and supporters for the roof, which they board and cover with tiles, with a regular descent, thereby preventing all inconvenience to passengers in wet weather. Lima and other parts of Peru not being subject to such heavy rains, the slope of the roofs, which are made light for fear of earthquakes, is not so great, and the conduit, or projection, for carrying off the water, is proportionably narrow.

Balsam.—An oil, or gum, which is distilled from some tree, or extracted from it by incision. The state of consistency varies in the different kinds, which are very numerous. See the articles *Peru, Tolu, Canimer, Maria, Copaive, Liquidambar, Caraña, Polo*, &c.

Banano. (*Musæ species.*)—The name of one of the most common species of plantain trees in America. The fruit of this tree is the common food of the Negroes and Indians, who eat it roasted as a substitute for bread, boiled, or in stews. When fried in small pieces like slices of bread, it is offered for sale for breakfast in every part. It is a foot in length and two inches in diameter, and something curved. At first it is green, and fit for roasting; afterwards it ripens and turns yellow, and then the pulp, which is covered with a rind near a quarter of an inch thick, is soft and agreeable to the taste. This fruit is in such general use, that there is no field without a plantain grove. Fermented in water, it produces a sort of drink not unlike beer, and of it is also made a very strong vinegar.

[*Balæna. The Whale* (*Balæna mysticetus*)—Is the largest of all animals. In the northern seas some are found 90 feet in length; and in the torrid zone, where they are unmolested, whales have been seen 160 feet in length. The head is greatly disproportioned to the size of the body. In the middle of the head are two orifices, through which they spout water to a great height. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox, and are placed towards the back of the head, for the convenience of seeing before and behind; they are guarded by eyelids as in quadrupeds, and they appear to be very sharp-sighted, and quick of hearing. What is called *whalebone* adheres to the upper jaw, and

is formed of thin parallel laminæ; some of the longest are twelve feet in length: of these there are from 350 to 500 on each side, according to the age of the whale. The tail, which alone is used to advance itself in the water, is broad and semilunar, and when the fish lies on one side, its blow is tremendous.

In copulation the male and female join, it is asserted, *more humano;* and once in two years feel the accesses of desire. Their fidelity to each other is remarkable; an instance of it is related by Mr. Anderson, as follows—"Some fishers having struck one of two whales, a male and a female, in company, the wounded fish made a long and terrible resistance; it struck down a boat, with two men in it, with a single blow of its tail, by which all went to the bottom; the other still attended its companion, and lent it every assistance, till, at last, the fish that was struck, sunk under the number of its wounds, while its faithful associate, disdaining to survive the loss, with great bellowing stretched itself upon the dead fish and shared its fate." The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and generally produces one young one, never above two, which are black, and about ten feet long. The teats of the female are placed in the lower part of the belly; when she suckles her young, she throws herself on one side, on the surface of the water, and the young ones attach themselves to the teats. Nothing can exceed the tenderness and care of the female for her young.

The whale louse, sword fish, and thresher (a species of *squalus*) are mortal enemies to the whale, who itself is an inoffensive animal.

Formerly, whales were found in plenty upon the coasts of the United States; at present they are scarce. The principal branch of the whale fishery, in the United States, is carried on from Nantucket. The enterprise of the Nantucket whalemen is remarkable. Not satisfied with the scope which the Atlantic Ocean affords them, they have proceeded round Cape Horn, and penetrated the great Western Ocean, in pursuit of whales. Capt. Worth, on his return from a very successful voyage, gives the following account, viz.:—That he went to the southward from Nantucket, doubled Cape Horn, and then pursued a north-westwardly course, till he arrived at the Island of Juan Fernandes. That here, where a harpoon was scarcely ever thrown, the whales swim in shoals, and that it is quite a matter of choice which of the company they shall fall upon: That along the coast of Chile, for a considerable distance at sea, no rain falls to incommode the frying of blubber, as happens to the great disadvantage of the whaling business in Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits; so that they can carry on their business without any of the interruptions common in other places, in consequence of which they can make more advantageous voyages. A cargo worth £6000. sterling, it is said, has been procured in a fifteen months voyage to this ocean.]

Balsa.—A soft porus wood, as light as cork, from which a sort of vessel used for traffic on the river Guayaquil, derives its name. It is constructed with large beams of balsa, fastened with strong filaments, upon which is placed another thickness of joists of cedar laid across, and divided at equal intervals, on the top of which are fixed pillars of cedar or ceibo, and with laths of these, or other light wood, are made the walls and ceilings, which they adorn and cover with strong canes, separated and arranged within in such a manner, as to fill up the vacant spaces, forming apartments with doors and windows, to enjoy the fresh air, the prospect of the river, and the shade. The top is covered with a cloth made of strong, thick cotton, smeared with tar, which affords protection against rain and the night air; by which means, this floating edifice has the advantage of a moveable house, with the several divisions of parlour, dormitory, pantry, wardrobe, and kitchen, provided with furniture and the necessary utensils for the accommodation of a large family. Vanity and emulation stimulate the proprietors to render the apartments as commodious as possible; some of them are large enough to contain very numerous families with the greatest decency and ease, and are used for the conveyance of persons of distinction; others, smaller than these, are used for the purpose of conveying goods, for pleasure, and for communication with the different parts of the neighbourhood; others, rougher and less commodious but of greater strength, are used in carrying flocks, provisions, and fruit; to load and unload the vessels which enter and leave the port, and to lay them on their sides for the purpose of careening and repairing them. They make use of oars till the influx of the rivers Taura and Balas, from whence they hoist sail, adding a temporary keel for fear of being upset, and a very singular kind of rudder called guare, unknown in any other part, which consists of five boards, five yards long and half a yard broad, let down in the water between the beams which form the floor of the stern; it is easily guided with a tiller, which renders it safe from squalls, and makes it

easily surmount whirlpools in the river and waves in the sea, though laden with the usual weight of betwixt two and three hundred *arrobas*, in bags of flour, packages of linen and baize, boxes of preserves, and fruits from the mountains.

Baqueano.—One skilled in the roads, cross-roads, and bye-paths of any place. The word is universally used in America.

Baquira. (*Sus Baquira.*)—A quadruped in the province of Guayana; it is a sort of wild boar, much resembling the wild boar in Europe, except in the tail, in which it differs greatly. There are three sorts, the largest is of a light grey colour; the middle one grey, with a small pouch on the kidneys, filled with musk. Some say this pouch is the extremity of the umbilical gut; but this opinion is erroneous, for it is known from experience, that it is a soft glandulous fat, through which it emits musk when enraged. Both species are savage: they go in droves, and always follow a leader, whom they never desert till he dies; and when one of the company is killed, all the others run to assist him, and by this means the sportsman, if protected from injury, may kill as many as he pleases. The third, and smallest species, is called chacharita.—(See *Chacharita.*) The flesh of all the three kinds is very good, bearing a great resemblance to that of wild boar. The two first kinds feed on wild fruits and roots, and when caught may be tamed and reduced to herd with the domestic hog.

Barqueta.—A small boat used in the Indies; it is about two yards long and half a yard broad, made of a solid trunk, excavated with tools or by means of fire; both extremities terminate in a point, so that the head and stern are the same. It sometimes carries two persons, but in general only one, who sits at one end, and by this means raises the other up, and having a paddle half a yard long, and near a hand broad, with a handle long enough for both hands, he strikes the water alternately on each side, and goes with the velocity of an arrow; in order to render the rowing more commodious, the side is only a hand above the water. If, at any time, it should be upset by the current of the river, the Indian, swimming, sets it to right, and empties out the water.

Barrio.—A name which, in New Spain, is given to the small villages in the vicinity of the town on which they depend.

Barro.—Or clay of Natá, in the province of Tierra Firme and territory of the city of Natá; it is red, and of an agreeable smell. Of it are made pitchers, jars, and many other neat polished vessels, which are greatly esteemed and sent to Peru, where they form a considerable branch of commerce.

Batea.—A name given to the kneading-trough, in most parts of America.

[*Bato.*—An Araucanian game, resembling the English cricket.]

[*Bayna.*—Yellow and purple, the peculiar name of some coffee in the territory of the city of Cartago and government of Popayan.]

Bayuca.—A word which corresponds with tavern in Europe.

[*Bear.*—Of this animal two sorts are found in the northern states of America; both are black, but different in their forms and habits. One has short legs, a thick, clumsy body, is generally fat, and is very fond of sweet vegetable food, such as sweet apples, Indian corn in the milk, berries, grapes, honey, &c. Probably he is not carnivorous. As soon as the first snow falls, he betakes himself to his den, which is a hole in a cleft of rocks, a hollow tree, or some such place; here he gradually becomes torpid, and dozes away the winter, sucking his paws, and expending the stock of fat which he had previously acquired.]

The other sort is distinguished by the name of the *Ranging Bear*, and seems to be a grade between the preceding and the wolf. His legs are longer, and his body more lean and gaunt. He is carnivorous, frequently destroying calves, sheep, and pigs, and sometimes children. In winter he migrates to the southward. The former appears to be the common black bear of Europe; the latter corresponds to the brown bear of the Alps; and is probably of the same species with those spoken of II Kings ii. 24, which formerly inhabited the mountainous parts of Judea, between Jericho and Bethel. Found in all the states.

[*Beateria.*—A religious house, or nunnery.]

[*Beaver.*—The beaver is an amphibious animal, which cannot live for any length of time in the water, and can exist without it, provided he has the convenience of sometimes bathing himself. The largest

beavers, formerly, were four feet in length, and weighed fifty or sixty pounds. At present they are not more than three feet in length, and may weigh from twenty-five to thirty pounds. The head of this animal is large, and his ears short and round; their fore teeth are prominent, long, broad, strong, and grooved or hollowed like a gouge; their fore legs are short, with toes separate, their hinder legs are long, with toes webbed; the tail is large, broad, and scaly, resembling the body of a fish; their colour is generally a dark brown, but varies according to the climate they inhabit; their hair is long and coarse, the fur very thick, fine, and highly valued; the castor used in medicine is found in sacks formed behind the kidneys.

Their houses are always situated in the water; sometimes they make use of a natural pond, but generally they choose to form one by building a dam across some brook or rivulet. For this purpose they select a number of sapplings of soft wood, generally of less than six inches diameter, but sometimes of sixteen or eighteen inches; these they fell and divide into proper lengths, and place them in the water, so that the length of the sticks make the width of the dam. These sticks they lay in mud or clay, their tails serving them for trowels, as their teeth did for axes. These dams are six or eight feet thick at bottom, sloping on the side opposed to the stream, and are about a quarter as broad at top as at bottom. Near the top of the dam they leave one or more waste ways, or sliding places, to carry off the surplus water.

The formation of their cabins is no less remarkable. They consist of two stories, one under, the other above water. They are shaped like the oval bee-hive; and of a size proportioned to the number of inhabitants. The walls of the lower apartments are two or three feet thick, formed like their dams; those of the upper story are thinner, and the whole, on the inside, plastered with mud. Each family constructs and inhabits its own cabin. The upper apartments are curiously strewed with leaves, and rendered neat, clean, and comfortable. The winter never surprises these animals, before their business is completed, for their houses are generally finished by the last of September, and their stock of provisions laid in, which consists of small pieces of wood deposited in the lower apartments. Before a storm, all hands are employed in repairing or strengthening their dams. They retain this industrious habit even after they are domesticated. In summer they roam abroad and feed on leaves, twigs, and food of that kind. These beavers are considered as the same species as those in Europe, but are vastly superior to them in every respect.

There is likewise a race of beavers called *terriers*, who dig holes and live a solitary, unsocial life. These are probably savage, who have never formed themselves into societies, and consequently have not made those improvements, which are to be acquired only in a social state. Found in all the United States.]

Bejúco.—The branch of a tree, or a tough pliant shoot, very difficult to be broken. It is used to tie any thing, instead of ropes, and lasts a long time. There are several kinds of various thicknesses, and several yards in length. On some mountains they form such dense thickets, that it is impossible to force a passage through them.

Bejuco.—Also a snake so called, from its resemblance to the bejuco. It is found in the province of Guayaquil, and is very venomous. It is very abundant, but happily for the natives, the bird curiquinqui pursues and destroys it, as well as insects.

Bejuquillo.—A plant, with nearly a circular leaf, and of a moderate size, whose branches or shoots creep on the ground like ivy, striking roots at the joints, and thence becoming, as it were, so many times a fresh plant. It is found in the province of Mainas. When taken in a quantity not exceeding a dram, it is a violent purge. The species which is known in Europe by the name of bejuquillo, is the ipecacuahna, as it is also called in some parts of America.

[*Beluga.* (*Delphinus beluga.*)—Is the fourth and last species of the dolphin genus. The head is short, nose blunt, eyes and mouth small, in each side of each jaw are nine teeth, short and rather blunt; those of the upper jaw are bent and hollowed, fitted to receive the teeth of the under jaw when the mouth is closed; it has pectoral fins, nearly of an oval form; beneath the skin may be felt the bones of five fingers, which terminate at the edge of the fin in five very sensible projections. This brings it into the next rank, in the order of beings, with the *manati*, found in the northern parts of the American coasts, particularly in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay.]

[*Beneficiado.*—Sinecure incumbent.]

Berrendo.—A quadruped of South America, in the province of California.

Bicho.—An endemical disease, in South America, and most prevalent in the kingdoms of Peru and Tierra Firme. It is an ulcer formed in the colon; and they give it this name because they say it takes its rise from a grub; it is easily cured if taken in the beginning, but if suffered to take deep hold, it terminates in a gangrene. Mr. Tussieu says it is a gangrene of the aforesaid intestine; and with well-founded arguments proves, that the reason why it proves fatal to nearly all who are afflicted with it, is in consequence of the remedies being applied too late. This disease is very common in Peru, and is called the sickness of the vallies. (*Mal de Valles.*)

[*Bio.*—A fish caught in the river Guayaquil, in the province of this name.]

[*Bison.*—An animal generally called the buffalo, but very improperly, as this name has been appropriated to another animal. He is of the same species with our common neat cattle, their difference being the effect of domestication. Compared with the neat cattle, the bison is considerably larger, especially about the fore parts of his body; on his shoulders arises a large fleshy or grisly substance, which extends along the back; the hair on his head, neck, and shoulders is long and woolly, and all of it is fit to be spun or wrought into hats. Calves from the domestic cow and wild bulls are sometimes raised; but when they grow up, they become so wild that no common fence will confine them. Is found in the middle states of N. America.

These animals were once exceedingly numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania; and so late as the year 1766, herds of 400 were frequently seen in Kentucky, and from thence to the Mississippi.

The American forests abound with various animals of the deer kind: naturalists have arranged them differently. We have followed M. de Buffon, who has reduced them all to the several species known in Europe.]

[*Black-sickness.* See *Vomito Negro.*]

[*Black-snake.* See *Serpents.*].

Blandengue.—A horse-soldier, in the militia established in the city of Santa Fé, in the province of Paraguay, to prevent the incursions of the unsubdued Indians. They are paid and maintained by a contribution levied on the carts, or machines, universally used for carrying the merchandise by that rout.

[*Boa.* (*Constrictor magnus.*)—See *Buho.*]

Bobo.—A fish very common in the rivers of New Spain and South America. It is six inches in length and two in breadth; the skin is black, without scales, and the body is void of bones. They give it the name of bobo, or fool, from the facility with which it permits itself to be killed with sticks; being enticed to the banks of the river by crumbs of bread, and frequently by stirring the water.

Bocachico.—A fish in the river Guayaquil, in the province of this name.

[*Bodegas.*—Custom-houses.]

Bodoquero.—A name given to smugglers, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme.

Boguilla.—A delicious well-tasted fish, caught in the lake Chucuito, in the province of this name, in the kingdom of Peru, and other parts. It is near four inches long and three broad. They are caught in great numbers by the Indians, who usually sell them at six dollars the thousand, carrying on a considerable trade with the neighbouring provinces.

[*Bohitos.*—Or priests of the Araucanians.]

Bollo.—A paste made of maize flour and butter, which they knead like bread, and make into very fine, white loaves, six inches in length and two in breadth, and is in general use in most parts of America. The loaves are wrapped up in maize leaves and those of other plants, and when baked are exposed to sale in all the chandler's shops, being the bread usually eaten by the slaves, and by the greater part of the common people.

Bombilla.—A thin, slender reed, which is coloured and used by the Peruvians to drink maté. (See *Maté.*) It is about four inches long, and as thick as a large quill, terminated at the end, which is immersed in the maté, in the shape of an almond, full of small holes, like those of a sand-box, that the herb may not ascend with the liquor. People of distinction use pipes made of silver or gold.

[*Bonito.*—A sort of fish found in S. America, being a kind of tunny fish.]

Bonzo.—A sort of boat, with which they navigate the river Chagre from the entrance to the town of Cruces, or the landing place. It is made of one large, solid piece of wood, and is frequently upwards of four yards broad, and will bear a cargo of five hundred quintals; it has a sort of cabin, extending from head to stern, separated in the middle all the length of the vessel, and covered with boards for the accommodation of passengers; they are generally manned with eighteen or twenty Negroes, who steer them with poles.

Bordillo.—The name of a sort of manufacture of wool, made in the islands of Chiloe, and much used for clothing.

Botija—Of Peru, an earthen vessel, a yard and a half high, and half a yard in its greatest breadth, in the shape of an inverted cone. The botija contains about twenty-three bottles and a half, common measure (Spanish), and in them they send wine, brandy, olives, and other articles to the kingdoms of Tierra Firme, Guatemala, and New Spain. When the Negroes take them out of the ships, they place them perpendicularly on their heads, the point of the vessel resting in a perforated linen cushion, by which means they are enabled to run and frisk with them, without losing their equilibrium.

Bozal.—A name applied to Negroes in every part of America, when they are newly arrived from the coasts of Africa, who understand nothing, have no notion of manners, arts, nor religion, and from their dulness and ignorance seem irrational creatures. Those who have been instructed, are called Ladinos.

Brazil. (*Cæsalphina Brasiliensis.*)—A tree, with red, heavy wood, in the kingdom of Brazil, in South America, from which it derives its name. It grows in the greatest abundance, and is of the best quality, in the province of Pernambuca; but it is also found in many other parts of that hemisphere, and in the East Indies. It generally grows in uncultivated lands and craggy rocks. The tree is large, crooked, and knotty; the leaves are of a beautiful red, and exhale an agreeable odour. Notwithstanding its apparent bulk, the bark is so thick, that a tree as large as a man's body with the bark, will not be so thick as the leg, when pealed. The wood is cut into large pieces, without the rind, and is a considerable article of commerce amongst the Portuguese. When cut into chips, it loses the pale colour which it before had, and becomes red, and when chewed, has a sweet taste. It is used for various purposes by cabinet-makers, and admits of a beautiful varnish; but its principal use is in dying red, and though the colour is liable to decay, yet by mixing with it alum and tartar, it is easily made permanent; they also make of it, by means of acids, a sort of liquid lac, or carmine, for painting in miniature.

Briza.—A name given in South America to the East wind, which blows during certain hours of the day and night, near the coast. It generally rises about nine in the morning, proceeding from the sea, and encreases till twelve; it then begins to decrease in the same manner, and ceases about five. The breeze from the land then commences, and gradually encreases till twelve at night, and the sea-breeze again succeeds it in the morning. It does not take place during all parts of the year, but only at certain times, which vary in the different ports.

Buairon.—A species of owl, in the province of Vera Paz, in the kingdom of Guatemala.

Bucaniers, or *Buccaneers.*—A name given to the first French planters who settled in the Island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, in the year 1660. This appellation is derived from the term Bucan, which they applied to the field where they seasoned their meat and dried the skins of the black cattle, which they killed. Here they built their huts, which they called ayoupas, and lived in them two by two, in perfect community, without admitting women, affording each other, mutually, every domestic assistance, with an entire participation of property, the one who survived inheriting the effects of the deceased. They conducted themselves with great uprightness and sincerity, and amongst them it would have been accounted a crime to keep any thing under a lock; the smallest theft would have been attended with expulsion; but as all their wealth was in common, they were free from this temptation, and what they could not find in the box of one, they met with in that of another, it being sufficient to ask consent to take it, and a refusal was in the highest degree dishonourable. In this manner the terms mine and thine were unknown in this republic, and consequently there were few dissentions, and when any happened, the friends of the dissenting parties used their mediatorship in

effecting a reconciliation, and restoring tranquillity. They had no other laws than mutual agreements, sanctioned by custom, which they looked upon as inviolable, and in case of infringement, they exclaimed, it was not the custom of the land. Notwithstanding, they were in some measure dependant on the Governor of Tortuga, to whom they sometimes paid tribute. Religion did not long preserve its rights amongst them, and they thought themselves sufficiently active if they did not altogether lose sight of the belief of their forefathers. Father Charlevoix very judiciously observes, that if this people had remained in the Island of St. Domingo on the same footing as they were, at the third or fourth generation, they would have had no more religion, or divine worship, than the Caffres and Hottentots of Africa, or the Caribes and Tupinambos of America. They abandoned even their christian names, and assumed surnames of war, which they perpetuated in their descendants; though some at their marriage changing their state of life and establishing themselves, signed the contract with their proper names. For this reason, in the Antilles, there still exists this proverb, "That a man is not known till his marriage." Their clothing consisted of a shirt sprinkled with the blood of the beasts which they had killed, small clothes besmeared with dirt, a girdle with a strap to which they hung a knife, and a short sword called machete, a hat with only a small rim in front to take hold of, their legs naked, and shoes made of the skin of a hog. Their muskets, which still retain the name of buccaneers, were four feet and a half long, and would admit a ball of an ounce weight. Each one had a number of attendants proportionable to his circumstances, and twenty or thirty dogs. They hunted chiefly wild oxen, and sometimes the chase of the wild boar formed a part of their exercise and diversion; some, afterwards, made the latter their only employment, and they dried the flesh with the smoke of the skin, which gave it a very agreeable flavour. The sportsmen went out, generally alone, about day-break, and were soon followed by their suite and dogs. One of these animals always acted the part of a scout, going before the sportsman and leading him through almost impenetrable roads. As soon as the leader discovered the prey, it gave a signal, by barking, for the other dogs to lend their assistance, and they surrounded the animal till the buccaneer came up and shot it in the breast, and immediately on its fall he cut its hamstrings to hinder it from getting up again. Some of these men were so nimble, that if the animal escaped, they would pursue and overtake it by running. Sometimes, if he only gave it a slight wound, the animal turned upon the sportsman and killed him, notwithstanding his dexterity, but such examples were extremely rare, as they seldom missed their aim. They generally took the precaution of placing themselves near a tree, and if the beast did not fall and advanced towards them, they avoided its fury by ascending the tree. When it was half flayed, the hunter took one of the largest bones, and breaking it, sucked out the marrow, which served him for breakfast. All the others did the same, and leaving one behind to take off the skin and select a piece of the best meat to eat, they continued their sport till they had killed as many beasts as there were persons engaged in the chase. On their return, each one, having brought with him a skin and a piece of flesh, found the table ready laid, consisting of a stone placed on the trunk of a tree; and without bread, wine, table-cloth, or any other thing except the acid juice of oranges, when they enjoyed the repast with a good appetite, and in perfect tranquillity. This they repeated every day, till they had collected the number of hides required, and then carried them to Tortuga, or some other port in the island. As this people had much exercise and fed on fresh meat, they were in general very healthy; and though they were subject to fevers, yet these were ephemeral and light, not interrupting their labours, and of which they made so little account, that when interrogated concerning their health, they would answer, "I have only got a fever." Yet in course of time they would generally become more infirm, not being sufficiently accustomed to the intemperature of the climate to continue so hard and painful a life during many years. For this reason, the more reasonable part only continued in this state, till they had opportunities of being admitted as denizens in some other place; but the greater part spent in the tavern all they gained, and were obliged to follow this sort of life, having accustomed themselves to it to such a degree that they could apply to no other; and there were instances of some youths, of good families, who would not leave so painful an exercise, exposed to so many dangers, into which their love of libertinism had drawn them, to return to France and enjoy considerable fortunes. The principal bucaneers inhabited the Peninsula of Samana, the small island in the Port of Baya, Port Morgot, Sabana Quemada, Goanavas, the Harbour of Morbalet, and the Island of Vaca; but from these places they overrun every part of the island. Such were the bucaneers of St. Domingo, and such was their state when the Spaniards undertook to drive them from this island. The war in the beginning went on very well, because it was very easy to surprise them

when they went out in small companies to hunt, as we have already mentioned. By this means they killed and took prisoners a great number, and at length being routed in several engagements, the few who remained united with the Flibusteers. See *Flibusteers.*

Buho, or *Boa.* (*Constrictor Magnus.*)—A very large snake, which is said to have the property of attracting with its breath birds and other animals for its prey. It is a native of America, and is found in many parts of that country; it has 240 rings on its belly and 60 on its tail; it is amphibious, and so very large that some are upwards of 36 feet in length; the body is very thick, greatly resembling the trunk of a large tree; it is of a dusky pale colour, and the upper part of the back is marked with 24 spots; the tail is of a darker colour, and the sides are beautifully speckled; the head is covered with small scales, and it has a black streak a little above the eye; it has no grinders, nor is its bite venomous; the tongue is fleshy and very thin; the part above each eye is a little elevated; the scales are small and very smooth, and the tail is not more than one-eighth part of its body. The Indians adore this monster, and the skin serves as an ornamental part of their dress, and the body is eaten by them. Pison, Marcgrave, and Kempfer give the following relation of the manner in which this animal lives and lies in wait for its prey:—It generally lives in caverns or very thick woods, taking its station near some tree, round which it twines its tail and springs out upon any thing that passes within its reach. As soon as it has got possession of its prey, particularly if it be some large animal, it doubles the body, squeezing it very hard to break the bones, which it readily accomplishes by the force of its circular muscles; after this is done, it passes its tongue over the skin, leaving on it a kind of saliva to facilitate deglutition, and by degrees swallows it. If its prey happen to be a deer, or other horned animal, it begins at the hind feet and finishes at the head, leaving the horns hanging out of the mouth till the body is digested, and they then fall. After it has devoured a large animal, it is incapable of motion for two or three days. The hunters, when informed of this circumstance, avail themselves of the opportunity and kill it. When irritated, it sends forth terrible hisses. It frequently rolls in mire, and then hides itself amongst the fallen leaves, waiting for prey near some path frequented by wild beast, and in this state the hunters have sometimes set their foot upon it, mistaking it for a fallen tree. This snake is found in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, in the new kingdom of Grenada, and in many other parts of America. In the province of Chaco they are called ampalabas, and by the Dutch, in their colonies, smuglers.

[*Bull Snake.*—See *Serpents.*]

[*Buta.*—The Araucanian term for great, and which the women, out of respect, generally call their husbands.]

[*Butacoyog.*—The chief council of the Araucanians, composed of the great body of the nobility, who decide every important question after the manner of the diet of Germany.]

Bujio.—The name of the hut or cottage of the Indians, in the shape of a square pyramid, covered with straw, much resembling those in the gardens and small villages in the kingdom of Valencia.

C.

[*Cabalgada.*—An excursion in the enemies' country; also, sometimes, the plunder and pillage of it.]

Cabildo.—A municipal body, of which there is one professedly for the civil administration over the Indians in S. America.

Cabuya.—A sort of cord, or rope used in America, which they make of the thread of pita, a species of yuca or adanis-needle.

Cacao. (*Theobroma Cacao.*)—A tree, whose fruit is well known in Europe on account of its general consumption. The Spaniards learned the method of decocting this fruit from the Indians, and have since diffused this knowledge amongst other nations. It is of the class polydelphia pentandria; the corolla consists of five petals; the nectary is of a campaniform figure, and the fruit has an uneven surface; the tree is equal in size to the orange-tree, and the leaves are also very similar, but something larger. Herera, the historian, compares the leaves with those of the chesnut-tree. The plant is so delicate, that to preserve it from the rays of the sun they always set it near some tree, which is already capable of shading it. The flower of the cacao-tree is white, and it produces fruit twice a year; the fruit is found in a pod, grooved like a melon and covered with a white skin, in the bud of each

flower; each one contains from 20 to 50 nuts, of the size of large almonds, very compactly set. There are two kinds of cacao, the one wild and bitter, which the Indians used to prize highly, and as it is still in some repute, they endeavour to cultivate and improve it; the other is distinguished by its quality, according to the soil or country in which it grows. The best cacoa is produced in the province of Soconusco, but the produce there is so small, that it barely supplies the people of property in New Spain: and for this reason very little is brought to Europe; the second, in point of goodness, is that of Machala and Ironcoso, in the province of Guatemala; the third, that of Motina, in the same province; the fourth, that of Rio de la Magdalena, in the new kingdom of Grenada; the fifth, that of the Island of Trinidad; the sixth, that of Caracas, in the province of Venezuela; and the seventh, that of Guayaquil. Europe is chiefly supplied from the abundant crops of the two last places, where the cacao is nearly the only fruit they cultivate. Treatises have been published on the virtues of the cacao by Bartholomew Marradon, Doctor of Marchena; Antonio Colmenero, of Ecija; and Doctor Philip Silvester du Four. The butter which is extracted from the cacao is very fresh, and is applied to various purposes in medicine.

Cacahuate.—A name given in New Spain to the mani. See *Mani.*

Cachupin.—A name given by the inhabitants of New Spain to Europeans.

[*Cacique.*—The principal or chief of the Araucanians. See an account of them, article *Chile*, of this Dictionary.]

Caqui. (*Simia Jacchus.*)—A small monkey, in the kingdom of Brazil. The tail, which is twice as long as its body, is very bushy, and diversified with black and white, alternately; or to speak more correctly, with brown and grey. Its head is round, covered with black hair, and it has a white mark on its forehead, and the nose naked; the face is almost naked, and of a brown, flesh colour; on each side of the head, a little above the ears, there are two tufts of white hair; the ears are round, flat, thin, and naked; the body is covered with a very smooth ash-coloured hair, and the neck with bright grey, with a little yellow; the breast and belly are about half a foot in length; it has a very agreeable appearance, but when young they are extremely ugly, having scarcely no hair. The young ones adhere closely to the teats of the mother; and when grown a little larger, they fix themselves on her back, from whence, when weary, she dislodges them by rubbing against a wall. On these occasions the male takes them up and feeds them. It is very entertaining to see them frisk and play their tricks.

Caiman, (*Lacerta Caudiverbera,*) or *Alligator.*—An amphibious animal, resembling the crocodile, with which it is classed by naturalists; but, although they resemble each other in their appearance, yet we find a considerable difference between them in this respect: that the first has no voice, whereas the latter makes a noise like the cry of a child. Its colour is grey, its aspect ferocious, and it is covered with a shell so very hard, that it is impenetrable to ball, which protects all its body in such a manner, that it is impossible to hurt them except in the eyes, and in a tender part under the fore legs. It is very timid, and flies at the least noise; but when tempted to human flesh, it is voracious and daring. The eyes are situated in two prominences, which are the only part of it that are visible when it is in the water; it comes to land to bask in the sun and to eat, which it cannot do in the water; it swallows a quantity of large stones, which serve as weights in its stomach to make it sink in the water; the mouth is very formidable, being furnished with 72 teeth, the 20 grinders in double rows in each jaw. The flesh is insupportable to the taste, and the oil extracted from it is useless; nor can its bones or shell be turned to any advantage. The stomach has a strong smell of musk, extremely fetid. The caiman is excessively abundant in the rivers and creeks, and along the sea-coast. The female lays each time 40 eggs, like the ostrich, which she deposits in the shore, making a hole and covering them with sand, at the same time counterfeiting others to prevent them from being discovered. But the gallenazos watch them from the trees, and as soon as the caiman retires they descend to pull them out and eat them. If it were not for those birds, they would soon vie in numbers with the flies. The eggs which escape the search of the gallinazos remain in the sand 40 days before the embryo arrives at a state of perfection, at which time the female returns and takes them out. Experiments have several times been made of covering them with dung, and they never failed to come out at the aforementioned period. Some have been seen in the rivers Guayaquil and Magdalena seven Spanish yards in length. The Indians and Mestizos in Guayaquil catch them with the tolete, which is a very strong piece of wood, three-quarters of a yard long, and sharpened at both extremities: at an equal distance

from both ends they tie a thong of ox-hide, which they keep in their hands, and play with the caiman with great dexterity and in perfect security; for though it can run swifter than a horse, yet as it has no joints to assist it in turning, it is obliged to circumscribe a circle with the whole length of its body, so that by a single turn they laugh at the ferocity with which it runs to its prey with its deformed mouth wide open. When they have fatigued it by frequent attempts to catch them, they thrust the tolete horizontally into its mouth, placing it erect when it enters, by which means it remains fastened in both jaws. It was not known that this animal was productive of any good before the year 1721, when it was discovered, by a Negro in the city of Panama, that the grinders are an efficacious antidote against all sort of poison, by only placing them in some part where they may touch the flesh. From a number of experiments, which have confirmed the truth of this circumstance, it is customary to wear rings, crosses, &c. made of the grinders of the caiman.

Caimito. (*Chrysophilum Caimitum.*)—A plant, and genus of the class pentandria monogynia: the calyx is campaniform, and divided into ten segments, which open alternately; the fruit contains ten seeds. There are two species, both of which are peculiar to America; the fruit is of a round shape, and is at first green, afterwards brown with a mixture of yellow, and lastly red, when arrived at full maturity; the rind, which is moderately thick, is smooth on the outside and fleshy within, adhering to the pulp, which is also fleshy, white, and full of an acid fluid, so that when eaten it makes a person contract his mouth and compress his lips; it is agreeable to the taste, and the inconvenience just mentioned may be taken away by only rubbing the mouth with the rind; it has no seed. The second species differs from the first in this respect only, that it preserves its green colour even when ripe.

[*Cainilla.*—A plant found in S. America.]

Cajeta.—A name given to the snuff-box, in every part of America.

[*Cajon.*—See *Caxon.*]

Calaquala. (*Polipodium Lanceolatum.*)—A shrub well known on account of its dissolvent virtue, particularly in the falling sickness. It generally grows amongst rocks; it has neither stalk nor flower, and all its leaves proceed from the ground; they are about three or four hands long and three inches broad; bright, smooth, and brittle; the root is of a dark colour and bearded. In decoction, it is the most powerful specific known for extracting bad humours. There are two species, distinguished by the names of male and female: the first is of a dark colour, and is the one which is used; the second is of a clear green, and is useless: they are generally found together. It commonly grows in quagmires, canals, and wet places; but the best quality is found in cold mountainous places. The most esteemed is that which grows in the territory of Ansa, in the province of Ibarra, and kingdom of Quito: it is also found in Loxa.

Calemback, or *Calembouck.*—A name given by the French to a tree which grows in the Island of St. Bartholomew, one of the Antilles. It is a species of aloe.

[*Calificador.*—Examiner.]

[*Calificador.*—Qualificator of the Inquisition. One appointed to examine books.]

[*Calzados Carmelitas.*—The Calced Carmelites.]

[*Cam.*—The term for serpent, in the Maya language.]

Cambures.—A species of plantain tree, resembling those of Guinea, but so small that one constitutes no more than a mouthful. The fruit is very delicious. They grow in the kingdom of Quito and in the new kingdom of Grenada. The most esteemed are those of Marcote, in the province and district of San Juan de los Llanos.

Camellones.—A sort of floating island, on the lake of Mexico, upon which the Indians make gardens and sow corn. They are made of rushes and rubbish, and are moveable at pleasure.

Camini.—See *Yerba del Paraguay.*

Camiseta.—A sort of coarse woollen cloth, manufactured in the kingdom of Peru, and worn by the labourers and people of inferior quality.

Camôte.—The sweet potatoe of Malaga is called by this name, in Peru.

Campêche. (*Hematorilum Campechianum.*)—A kind of tree, and genus of the class decandria monogynia. The calyx is divided into five parts, with an equal number of petals. The capsula is perforated and contains a cell with two valves. There is only one species known, which comes originally from Campeachy, from which it derives its name, though it is found in some other places. It is sold in large bags, and a considerable trade is carried on in this article. It is of a red colour, and has a sweet astringent taste: it is much used in dying, and for this reason it is held in great esteem; its decoction is very beneficial in diarrœhas.

[*Can.*—A pint measure of the Araucanians.]

Cañabrava.—A compact, solid, black wood, with which the natives of Darien, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, used to point their arrows, and which was as hard as iron.

Cañafistula, or *Cassia Fistula.*—Is one of the thirty species of the genus and class decandria monogynia, which is very abundant in every part of America. The fruit is a long cylindrical pod, half a yard in length, divided in the interior by a sort of plates covered with a soft substance, called by apothecaries pulp or flour of Cassia. The best kind is that which grows in the island of Santa Margarita, but it is also found in Trinidad, Cumana, Venezuela, and several other places. There is another species called stinking Cañafistula (Cassia Thora) whose pods are much larger, have an uneven surface, and a very offensive smell. Both kinds in decoction are purgative, and are very useful in pleurisies, in complaints in the kidneys and bladder, and in the gonorrhæa.

[*Canagñate.*—See *Cañahuate.*]

[*Cañagua.*—See *Cañahua.*]

Cañahua.—A kind of grain resembling millet, which constitutes great part of the Indians food, and of which by fermentation, they make a kind of beverage, called chicha. It is cultivated in several provinces of Peru, particularly in Pacages, which enjoys a very lucrative commerce, as well as the other provinces on the mountains, it being peculiar to a cold climate.

Cañahuate.—Of Guayaca, which grows in the territory of the city of Barinos, in the new kingdom of Grenada; it is of a yellow colour, and differs in some respects from the common kind.

Canalete.—A paddle resembling a baker's peel, something more than a yard long, half of which consists of a blade about a hand broad, and the rest is a round pole, terminating in the shape of a half moon, which serves as a handle for the left hand whilst the right draws it back in the water. It is generally managed in canoes by one or two Indians, who use it instead of the oar and sail, with a velocity almost exceeding belief.

Canapia.—The name of a tree in the island of St. Christopher, one of the Antilles, which produces a gum greatly esteemed by the French physicians for its cathartic virtue.

Canchalagua. (*Gentiana Clachanlaguen; Mol.*)—A plant resembling the lesser centuary, with which it is classed by botanists. It however differs from the latter, in having a principal stem, which is round, its branches two by two opposite each other, placed almost horizontally in the leaves, and from other less apparent differences. The name Clachanlaguen in the language of Chili, signifies, herb against pleurisy, and is corruptly called by the Spaniards canchalagua. It is used with the most happy effects in the aforementioned complaint; it is likewise esteemed as emmenagogue purgative, anteverminous and febrifuge. The infusion is bitter in the highest degree, and is of a yellow colour; it is a singular specific for complaints in the throat, and is particularly used as a powerful dissolvent in the falling sickness, and for assisting women under stoppage of the terms. It is accounted a good succedaneum for tea, and has, when fresh, a smell resembling the balsam of Peru; it grows in bleak cold places.

Candela.—A term synonymous with a burning light or fire, in general use in America.

Candelon.—A hard wood; the tree, which is very large and bulky, grows in the island of St. Domingo.

Canela. (*Laurus Indica.*)—American cinnamon, which though of the same genus as the Laurus, yet botanists look upon it as forming a different species from that of Ceylon; and modern observation has justified the propriety of this distinction; this species was first discovered by Gonzalo Pizarro, in the kingdom of Quito, where he found immense woods of this tree; and though the Spaniards per-

suaded themselves, that this was the true cinnamon in a wild state, and that with cultivation and labour it would equal that of Ceylon, yet it has since been found to be impracticable. It is, however, much used in Quito. It is something paler than cinnamon, has a very agreeable smell and a bitter aromatic taste, something like true cinnamon, cloves, or ginger. Physicians place it amongst stomachics, cephalics, and tonics; and it is consequently proper in all cases where the stomach is weak and performs its functions with difficulty, and in phlegmatic complaints. It is also esteemed a good antiscorbutic, and one or two scruples taken in powder is a good cure for the quartan ague. This tree is very abundant in the country bordering on the Straits of Magellan, from whence it was taken to Jamaica in the year 1557, by an English captain of the name of Winter. It still retains the name of the captain amongst the natives of Jamaica, but has greatly degenerated from that of Quito.

There is also a very venomous serpent of this name, which lives in the cinnamon tree, in the province of Moxos and kingdom of Quito; it is about a hand in length, of the thickness of the little finger, of the same colour as the cinnamon, and so like it when shrunk up in small rolls, that many people have been stung by taking hold of it through mistake.

Canelón.—A bird which lives in the dales and valleys between the mountains which form the cordillera of Peru. It bears a great resemblance to the Vandurria, and is about the size of the goose; the neck is long and thick, the beak straight and large, and the feet and legs proportioned to the body; the feathers on the upper part of the wing are of a grey colour, those below white; and in the part where they unite, there are two spurs, about an inch and a half in length, which they use for their defence. The male and female always go together. The flesh is very tough, but very good to eat if kept two or three days after killed. In colder places they differ in some respects, having a soft callous horn on their head, and both species have a crest of feathers on the top of the head.

Canime.—A tree which grows in the province and district of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Grenada. It produces a resin or gum, which they use for curing cuts and the itch; it is also a purge and vomit, by drinking three spoonfuls and a quantity of warm water; the effect once produced, it continues to act till you may wish to restrain it, which is done by only drinking a cup of cold water.

Canoa —A boat used by the Indians, made of the solid trunk of one large tree, which they first shape and afterwards hollow out with fire or with tools. They are of different sizes, some very large, with two masts and oblong square sails.

[*Canonigo Magistral.*—A certain dignitary of the chapter; called magistral, as having graduated as master of theology in some approved university.]

[*Canonigo Penitenciario.*—Canon penitentiary.]

Caoba. (Swietenia Mahogani.)—Or mahogany; a large bulky tree, whose wood is well known in Europe as one of the most proper for household furniture, as well on account of its beautiful red colour, which afterwards becomes dark, as for its sweet smell, solidity and disposition to receive the most beautiful varnish. In Europe and America it is used in preference to all others for large chests, chairs, tables, and writing-desks. The tree is very common in almost all the provinces of America, and some are of an excessive magnitude. The best grow in the kingdom of Tierra Firme and the isthmus of Panama, where it is very common to see tables five yards long and two and a half broad, made of one board.

[*Caoutchouc.*—A plant of S. America.]

[*Capá.*—A wood of St. Domingo particularly suited to the sheathing of vessels, from its being strong, and almost impervious to worms, a bottom of this wood being equal to four of pine. The Spanish vessels are generally built with it, and they greatly outlast all others. In the English islands its virtues are not unknown, and it is often in considerable demand.]

Capiguara, or *Capivara. (Tapirus.)*—See *Anta.*

Capitan.—A very delicious savoury fish, found in the rivers of the new kingdom of Grenada. It is the bagra of other provinces, but those caught in Grenada have a more delicious taste than those of any other part. It has been remarked, that when the bones of the head are separated, each one represents some one of the instruments of the passion of our Redeemer, forming the spear, cross, nails, &c. In other parts of the same kingdom it is called chimba.

[*Captainship.*—The jurisdiction of a captain of a district.]

Capuli. (*Prunus Virginiana.*)—A tree of a moderate size, resembling the cherry-tree, the skin of whose fruit is as tender as the fruit itself. In the town of Tomebamba, province of Latacunga and kingdom of Quito, there grew one of this species in a garden, which excited the admiration of M. la Condamine and other French academicians. It was about nine yards in circumference, very straight, and entirely destitute of branches; at the height of eight yards there was a broad circular cup, from the centre of which the body of the tree proceeded naked, and a little thinner, to the height of five yards, where another cup was formed, something less than the first, from which the stem, still more slender, grew five yards high, forming the third and last cup something smaller than the others, in a pyramidal shape, its whole elevation being 22 yards.

[*Cara.*—The name for a large village amongst the Araucanians; the Spanish cities are all known to them by this title.]

[*Caranapire.*—A species of sage-plant found in Cumaná.]

Caraña. (*Arborinsania Caragna nuncupata, Hern.*)—A resinous gum extracted from three different trees, which have all the same virtues. One of these is high and very thick, in the trunk of which an incision is made, and in the course of a few days it distils a white thick gum, of a very disagreeable smell. The gum in some trees is of a dark colour; the trunk of another is of a dusky yellow, smooth, with a round leaf, and of a moderate height; the third is of a pyramidal shape, and not very large. This gum is used to draw, cleanse, and consolidate wounds, and to strengthen the nerves.

Caratas.—A species of the genus of the palm-tree, peculiar to the province of Guayana or New Andalusia, where it is very abundant, and produces cocoas differing from those of other parts.

Carate.—An endemical disease of a scrofulous nature, in hot wet countries. The face and body is covered with large purple spots, which afterwards assume other colours, causing an extraordinary burning and itching; and if the disease affect the whole mass of the blood, it becomes hereditary, without any remedy hitherto invented to prevent it. It is peculiar to the Negroes, and was brought by them from Africa, and it seldom affects the Indians. It is very prevalent in the towns in the jurisdiction of San Juan de los Llanos in the new kingdom of Grenada, and particularly in the valley of Patia.

Caraya.—The generical name given to all species of monkies by the natives of Paraguay, where there are immense numbers of different kinds.

Cardenal. (*Loxia Cardinalis.*)—A small singing bird of a very bright red colour, with a cap of black feathers on its head, from which it derives its name. Its note is very sweet and agreeable, like that of the canary, which it exceeds a little in magnitude; it is very common in almost all the provinces of America. The cardinal is greatly esteemed in Europe, and kept in cages, but from the difference of climate it seldom lives long. There are several kinds of this bird which are distinguished by their colour.

Cardo Santo. (*Argemone Mexicana.*)—This plant is well known, and its virtues in physic are greatly celebrated, for which reason we shall not give a description of it, nor enumerate the different purposes to which it is applied, but shall only add, that it grows in many parts of America.

Carei. (*Testudo Careta.*)—Though this be one of the smallest species of tortoises, yet its shell is in great request for making trinkets. They are very numerous in the north coast of the province of Darien, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, where the Indians catch them in great abundance, and carry on a considerable trade with the English, French, and Dutch, who go there to buy them, and return in exchange, powder, balls, muskets, fish-hooks, knives, and cloth.

[*Caren.*—A herb of S. America, that keeps green all the year round, and resembles trefoil.]

[*Carga.*—A measure of grain, weighing, in Castile, four *fanegas.*]

[*Carol-tree.*—Very common in Spain, and in some parts of Italy, where it produces a great quantity of long, flat, brown-coloured pods, which are thick, mealy, and of a sweetish taste. These pods are eaten by the poor inhabitants. *Miller.*]

[*Caribou.*—An animal of N. America, distinguished by its branching palmated horns, with brow

antlers. He is probably the rein deer of the northern parts of Europe. From the tendons of this animal, as well as of the moose, the aboriginal natives made very tolerable thread. Found in the district of Main, N. America.]

Carnero de la Tierra.—See *Llama.*

Carotic.—A hard strong wood of a large tree, in the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito. It is used in the building of ships, for those parts where the greatest strength is required.

[*Caruata.*—A sort of pita, different from the common kind, which grows in the province of Guayana, or New Andalusia, of which they make ropes which are very strong, and applied to all purposes. The Spaniards call it cacuiza.]

Cascabel. (*Crotanus.*)—A sort of snake classed with the amphibious, whose distinguishing mark is the rattle in the end of its tail, which consists of several sounding shells, or rather a small shelly bag with a little bone in the inside, which rattles when the animal moves, and serves to warn those who hear it to guard against its bite, which is mortal. It every year receives an increase of one bell or rattle. There are five species, the horridus, or American rattle-snake, of a deep orange colour, or blackish on the back and ash-coloured on the belly, from four to five feet long. The second is the miliar, ash-coloured, with black spots, peculiar to Carolina. The third, the dryinas, of a whitish colour, with a few spots of yellow. The fourth, the durysus, spotted with white and yellow; and fifthly, the mutus, of a rhomboidal figure, with black spots on the back and a streak of the same colour behind its eyes. This last is a native of Surinam. They are all found in America, where they are very numerous; the bite of any of them is so extremely venomous, that it kills in a very short time.

Cascalote.—A plant in New Spain, which is the principal ingredient used to colour, tan, and dye cordavan, and mixed with Alcaparosa to make a good perfect black; for this reason it is very useful, and the trade in this article is very great, particularly in the province and alcaldía of Pungaravatio. They give it this name, which signifies a crow, on account of the similitude of their colour.

Cascarilla. (*Croton Cascarilla.*)—Or aromatic Peruvian bark. It is the bark of a tree resembling that of the Jesuits bark, but something paler, and of an ash colour in the inside; the smell is aromatic, the taste something bitter, but pleasant, and when burnt it exhales a very agreeable odour; it is a febrifuge, astringent and tonic, and is used by many for the real Peruvian bark, but its effects are slower and less sensible; it also possesses an antispasmodic aperitive, and sudorific virtue, and is given in windy and hypochondriacal complaints; it re-establishes the terms, and regulates suppressed hemorrhage; gives strength and firmness to the lungs, which have been impaired by sickness, and its effects are very happy in obstinate dysenteries, emanating from acute fevers. Stahl recommends it in phlegmatic distempers of the breast, such as the pleurisy and peripneumony, being capable of destroying inflammatory pustules. It is also very efficacious in catarrhous and convulsive cough, and dissipates it sooner than any other prescription, when given in preserves in a quantity of from six to twelve grains. Frederick Hofman says, that with the essence of cascarilla he cured a woman of a violent head ache, which had resisted all other medicines; it is given in an infusion of wine, from half to a scruple in quantity, and in powders from fifteen grains to a scruple; it is also mixed with an equal quantity of Peruvian bark in the form of pill, with twenty or thirty grains of that powder. They likewise make a syrup by boiling eight pounds of water, till one third is consumed, and then let half evaporate, and add to it a pound of sugar. This is a very efficacious remedy for catarrhous complaints in the head, breast, and stomach. They also procure from it an extraction in common water, and a tincture in rectified spirits of wine. In the pharmacopœia of Paris this bark is an ingredient in the opiate of Solomon, eau univervelle, trochishs of Cepheus, lozenges, and in the celestial treacle. It grows in great abundance in the province of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, and in Mainas, where they use it for incense.

Cascol.—A gum extracted from a tree in the district of St. Helena, in the province of Guayaquil and kingdom of Quito. Of this gum they make a sort of black sealing-wax, from which they derive great profit.

Caspiroleta.—A sort of consistent preserve or sweet meat, made at Havannah, and brought to Europe in small boxes of cedar; it is a sort of turron, of a cinnamon colour, and very agreeable taste.

Castañuela.—A root in the kingdom of New Galicia, and several other parts of North America, given to pigs to fatten them, in the same manner as the bellotá or acorn is given in Estremadura.

[*Castas.*—Casts or mixed breeds; thus the Mustees are the offspring of the Spaniard and the Indian, and the Mulattoes of the Spaniard or white, and Negro or other woman; the names of such offspring being Zambo, Cholo, Puchuela, Salta Atras, Tente en el Ayre, Quarteron, Quinteron, &c.]

Castellano.—A weight of a dram, which the first Spaniards and conquerors of America established for the payment and reception of gold; it was computed at the value of two dollars and a half in Spain, or two pesos fuertes of America, equivalent to an escudo of gold of the ancient doublon of eight.

Castor. (*Fiber Castor.*)—[See *Beaver.*]

[*Cassari.* (*Cassada.*)—A plant cultivated in all the warm parts of America, when the roots, after being divested of its milky juice, is ground to flour, and then made into cakes of bread. Of this there are two sorts; the most common has purplish stalks, with the veins and leaves of a purplish colour; but the stalks of the other are green, and the leaves of a light green. The last sort is not venomous, even when the roots are fresh and full of juice; which the Negroes frequently dig up, roast and eat like potatoes, without any ill effects. *Miller.*]

[*Casuchas.*—Miserable huts, belonging to the Indians in South America.]

Catachi. (*Stalactites.*)—A white stone, which is formed by the petrifying quality of the water of a fountain in the province of Conchucos, in the kingdom of Peru, which falling into a deep hole, is condensed in the shape of wax candles, of an extraordinary whiteness. In the district where it is found they use it to cure the bloody flux; and it is also said, that pounded into dust and mixed with the white of eggs, it possesses the virtue of uniting fractured bones.

[*Catamount.*—This animal, the most dreaded by hunters of any of the inhabitants of the forests, is rarely seen, which is probably the reason why no account of him has ever been published, to our knowledge, except what is contained in a letter of Mr. Collinson's to M. de Buffon. The dimensions of one, killed a few years ago, in New Hampshire, as nearly as could be ascertained by the skin, were as follows; the length of his body, including the head, six feet; the circumference of his body two feet and a half; length of his tail three feet, and of his legs about one foot. The colour, along his back, is nearly black; on his sides, a dark reddish brown; his feet black. He seems not calculated for running, but leaps with surprising agility. His favourite food is blood, which, like other animals of the cat kind, he takes from the jugular vessels of cattle, deer, &c. leaving the carcase. Smaller prey he takes to his den; and he has been known to carry off a child. He seems to be allured by fire, which terrifies all other carnivorous animals, and betrays no fear of either man or beast. He is found in the northern and middle states of America.]

[*Catedratico de Prima.*—A professor of divinity, namely, professor of prime, or morning lecturer.]

[*Catedratico de Vesperas.*—Evening professor.]

[*Cavalgada,* or *Cabalgada.*—Cavalcade; in S. America, it sometimes means an incursion into an enemy's country, and the carrying from thence the spoil.]

[*Cavi.*—A root in the West Indies, of which Acosta gives no account, but only the name.]

Cavima.—A hard wood which grows in the island of St. Domingo, and is greatly esteemed.

[*Caxeta.*—A little box; the caxetas de Cuenca, or conserves of Cuenca, are proverbial.]

Caxon.—The miners in America apply this term to the usual quantity of mineral earth got by one man in a day, which is generally fifty quintals. It is impossible to ascertain how much metal is contained in this quantity, as it differs according to the quantity of the earth, and the richness of the mines; but it generally produces eight or ten marks, and there have been some that have given eighty.

Cazave.—The coarse bread of the Negroes, Indians, and most of the indigent people in America. It is made of the yuca, which they grate and wash, leaving it in water for sometime, that it may emit its poisonous part, and of this they make large cakes, which they bake in ovens. Many Europeans prefer this to wheaten bread. When the Spaniards first discovered America, this bread was then used by the natives.

Cazon. (*Squalus Gallius.*)—A small delicious fish, very common in every part of America; it is said that this fish, when arrived at its full growth, is the tiburon carnivon or shark, which grows to an amazing size, and is then no longer esteemed; it is of a lead colour and destitute of scales; the skin is very rough and serves to polish wood; the mouth is round, very large, and set with a great number of very sharp teeth.

Cedro. (*Cedrella odorata.*)—A wood well known in Europe, and found in every part of America; for which reason they make of it boxes and other common pieces of furniture; the tree is very large, the wood light, with a very agreeable smell, is easily worked, and is susceptible of a very fine polish. There are several species of cedar, distinguished by the appellations red, white, spinous, yellow, &c.

[*Cedula Real.*—A king's warrant.]

Ceiba. (*Bombax Ceiba.*)—A large bulky tree, which exceeds in magnitude any other found in America. It produces a sort of white wool, very fine and soft, which they apply to several purposes. A very brisk trade is carried on in this article in the district of Puerto Viego, in the province of Guayaquil and kingdom of Quito. Of the tree they make boats of one entire piece. We have seen in the Ensenada of Caledonia, in the province of Darien, an old hollow tree of this species, in which twenty persons sat down to dinner with the greatest ease. This tree on the coast of Africa is called pandemono, or monkies bread.

Chacaranda.—A hard valuable wood, growing in the province of Guayana, in New Granada, of which they make various sorts of beautiful household furniture.

Chacharita. (*Sustajacu.*)—The name of a quadruped in the province of Guayana, or New Andalusia. It is a species of mountain boar, of a less size than any others in that part, and causes considerable damage to the lands sown with maize, pumpkins, potatoes, and other fruits.

Chacra, or *Chaxara.*—A name given by the Peruvians to an estate in the country.

Chagllas.—A sort of small cane, about the thickness of a finger, so called in the province of Guayaquil. There is also another species, which exceeds the last in magnitude, of which they make the partition walls in houses, covering them with a coat plaster and whitewash, so that they appear like real walls.

Chaguala.—A small gold ring, which the Mosch Indians of the new kingdom of Granada wore in the cartilage of their noses, which are bored for this purpose, in the same manner as the Maltese and the women in Europe do their ears. Some barbarous nations in that kingdom still preserve this custom; and in the country of Darien they wear them so very large, that they greatly disfigure them.

Chaguarama.—A sort of palm in the province of Guayana, or New Andalusia.

[*Chahuar.*—A plant of S. America, having prickles like the savine, of which they make thread, similar to hemp, for nets, bags, and coarse clothing. Its root serves for food to the Indians, the same as *yucas*, potatoes, &c.]

Chalchihuites.—A green stone found in the silver-mines in the kingdom of New Galicia, in North America, to which they attribute the virtue of alleviating the pain of the hip gout, or sciatica. The ancient Americans held these stones in great esteem. They vary in colour, but the most esteemed are green, of which there is a large altar stone in the cathedral in the town of Puebla de los Angeles.

Chalona.—The flesh of sheep dried and cured in the frost, in great repute for the delicious taste which it acquires from being thus prepared. A pretty considerable trade is carried on in this article in the provinces on the Sierra, and the cold situations in Peru, as Lampa, and several others.

Chamarreta.—A name given by the common people of S. America to a sort of waistcoat, with sleeves usually made of baize.

Champan.—A provincial term in the kingdom of New Granada, applied to the boats which navigate the river Magdalena from Mompox to Honda. Some of these are made very large, to carry heavy cargoes, and others are fitted up for the accommodation of passengers.

Changamê.—A bird resembling the thrush, nearly of the same size, and brown colour. The flesh is very hard and black, and is only eaten by the Negroes employed in diving for pearls in the islands.

situated in the Cove of Panama, where these birds are very numerous, and cause great damage to the crops of maize.

Chapeton.—A name given in S. America to Europeans soon after their arrival, in the same manner as in N. America they are called Cachupin.

Chapetonada.—The first disease which attacks Europeans on their arrival in America, occasioned by the change of climate, diet, and the fatigue of the voyage. There are extremely few who are not affected with this disease, and it proves fatal to many.

Charaguary.—A strong beautiful wood, which grows in Guayana, or New Andalusia.

Charal, or *Mistlapic.*—Synonymous terms in New Spain for the fish pejerey, in which they carry on very considerable trade.

Charapa.—A species of tortoise, very abundant in the rivers and lakes in the province of Marañon. It is distinguished from the other species by its diminutive size. Its flesh is very savoury and good, but something tough. It is principally sought after on account of its intestines, which are of the thickness of a finger, and resemble butter. They deposit on an average 200 eggs each time, which are a great dainty, and yield a very exquisite oil. The charapa differs from the carey ; the shell of the former is very thick, three hands long and two broad.

[*Charas.*—A name given to wild honey, found in Peru.]

[*Charaes.*—A fine flavoured fish, peculiar to S. America.]

Charquecillo.—The conger eel is so called by the inhabitants of Cobija, in the province of Atacama in the kingdom of Peru. This fish is caught in great abundance in the Port of Cobija, which is situated in the S. Sea, and is salted for exportation to the other provinces. For this reason they are also called salados, or salted. The trade in this fish is very lucrative and extensive, as it supplies the place of bacalao, or dried cod fish.

Charquican.—A sort of ragout, made in the kingdom of Peru and Tierra Firme. It is composed of hung beef, pounded till it resembles tow, and seasoned with pepper, ajonjoli, mani, and potatoes. It derives its name from charqui, which signifies hung beef.

Chasqui.—A foot courier, whose office is to carry letters and parcels in a sort of basket fixed on the back by means of two straps in which the arms are inserted, in the same manner as the pedlar carries his pack. The term chasqui is derived from the language of Quechua, and was applied by the Indians to their couriers, from whom it was borrowed by the Spaniards, and has since been extended to Tierra Firme and other countries.

Chata.—A sort of boat, peculiar to the kingdom of Tierra Firme, with which they navigate the river Chagre, from its entrance up to Aduana and the port of Cruzes. These boats are very large, and carry heavy cargoes; they make use both of oars and sails, and they derive their name from being flat-bottomed in order that they may draw less water.

Chavacano.—A sort of fruit growing in New Spain, which as well as the tree, bears a near resemblance to the apricot.

Chepe.—An abbreviation for Joseph, used in Peru.

Chia.—The name by which the moon was known to the natives of New Grenada during their Paganism.

[*Chiaigue.*—The dry measure of the Araucanians, containing six pints.]

Chicha.—The common beverage of the Indians and people of colour. It is the juice of some fruit, and consequently there are many kinds, which take their names from the fruit out of which they are extracted, as chicha of the pine-apple, &c.

Chicle.—Is the name given in New Spain to a gum which distils from the sapote-tree, and is esteemed an excellent remedy for several complaints.

Chico Zapote.—The medlar-tree is called by this name in New Spain.

Chiguire.—An amphibious animal in Guayana, or New Andalucia. It is an inhabitant of some rivers and lakes. The Caribean Indians call this animal capigua, and the Spaniards guardatinajas. It

resembles in some respects the hog. The snout has some affinity with that of the sheep, the hoofs are divided into three parts, the hair is of a brown colour, and the tail so short that it is scarcely perceptible. The flesh is eaten on days of abstinence, because it lives in water as well as on land. They swim in large droves, and occasionally lift their heads out of water to take breath. Their food consists principally of the herbs which grow on the banks of the rivers, where the Indians place themselves in ambuscade to shoot them with their arrows, and are passionately fond of their flesh, which has a very agreeable taste.

[*Chilca.*—A herb peculiar to S. America.]

Chile.—The pimento or red pepper, is so called in New Spain. In Peru, this name is given to one sort only, which is peculiar to that kingdom, to distinguish it from the other kinds.

[*Chilihueque.*—A species of camel that was employed formerly instead of mules by the Chilians. Though these quadrupeds are analogous to the camel, they have likewise some peculiar characteristics which distinguish them from that animal. They are believed to be shorter lived; the period assigned them is 30 years.]

[*Chilimoya.*—The anona cheremolia of Linn.]

[*Chilineque.*—See *Chilihueque.*]

China.—A mongrel breed in S. America, from an Indian male and an European female; they are in general very white, and their features regularly formed.

Chincate, or *Chancaca.*—The coarse brown sugar which is taken last out of the boiler, after fine and that of a middle quality have been got, of which they make chinguirito, or brandy of the sugar-cane. It also goes by the name of peloncillo and panocha in New Spain.

Chinchilla, (*Mus Paca.*)—A species of rat or field mole, greatly esteemed for the fine fur with which the body is covered instead of a skin, which is as soft as the silk deposited by the garden spiders. The fur is of an ash colour, and of sufficient length to be spun. This little animal is about six inches long from the nose to the tail, the ears small and pointed, the snout short, the teeth like those of the domestic mole, the tail of a moderate length, and thickly set with very soft hair. It burrows in the earth in the northern provinces of Chile, and is particularly abundant in Buenos Ayres. It is a great friend of society, and feeds on onions and other bulbous plants which grow in great profusion in those places. It brings forth twice in the year, five or six young ones each time. It is naturally tractable and tame, and when taken up in the hand does not bite nor offer to escape, but manifests great pleasure at being caressed. If placed in the lap it enjoys the same composure and tranquillity as if it lay in its own habitation; and as it is so remarkably clean, no one need be afraid that it will dirty his clothes or give them any disagreeable smell, for it is entirely destitute of that offensive odour inherent in all the other species of mice. Hence it appears that this little animal might be brought up in our houses with a very little trouble and at a trifling expense, and by this means might render serviceable its fur, of which the Peruvians formerly made coverlets and fine cloths. The skin is now generally used for the purpose of carrying tobacco by those who smoke.

Chingana.—The inhabitants of the province of Quispicanlhi, in the kingdom of Peru, give this name to certain holes or caverns in the interior of the mountains, where the Incas had a palace, in which it it reported they hid their treasures.

Chinguirito.—The brandy of the sugar-cane; it is called by this name in Mexico. It is made of the dregs of sugar which remain in the boiler.

Chini.—The name of a fish caught on the lake of Chucuito, in the province and district of Lampa in Peru. The inhabitants of this and several other countries pickle them, and export them in bags to the neighbouring provinces, where they are sold to great advantage. This fish is the same as the boguilla.

Chircate.—A square mantelet of cotton, which the Indian women in the new kingdom of Granada wore round their waists in the time of their Paganism.

Chiricles.—A bird of the most singular qualities yet known, found on the banks of the river Marañon. Its shape resembles that of the parrot, but it is not larger than a sparrow, of a yellow, brown,

and black colour. The beak is long and broad. It may be taught to dance on a table to the sound of any instrument, and to speak a few words. It imitates several birds, and in a very singular manner accompanies with its sweet note, any one who plays to it, with so great exactness and precision as to astonish all who hear it. There was one of these birds in Riobamba, which was placed on the rails in the choir and accompanied the music.

Chirimoya. (*Annona Squamosa.*)—And in the language of Quechua, *Chirimuyu*, meaning fruit with cold seeds; and they are truly cold in a very high degree. This fruit in point of goodness may vie with any other in America. The tree which produces it is of a moderate size, with branches to the bottom; the leaves something large, and the flower which is small consists of three narrow, fleshy leaves, betwixt a green and a straw-colour. The skin of the fruit is green, very thin and delicate; the pulp very white and soft, and has sometimes a greater, sometimes a smaller number of seeds, which are a bright black, a little flattened, about an inch long, and half an inch broad. The seed is confined to no particular shape, some being round, others pyramidical cones, others something flat, with various other irregularities, though they may all have grown on the same tree. It is sweet, without producing satiety; some are rather aqueous, with a little acid, and others are destitute of this quality. It is eaten cut into small pieces, or with a spoon. The size and quality of the fruit vary, according to the soil and climate. In Quito, they are small and full of seeds; in Ibarro, Hambato, Loxa, and Cuenca, they are of a better quality; and those of Popayan, which are the best in America, are five or six inches in diameter, and some may be seen as large as a man's head with very few seeds. Some say the rind is rough and uneven, like that of the pine-apple, but it is only in this state whilst green; and after it grows ripe it becomes smooth, leaving only some superficial lines in a semicircular form laid over each other; and though it may still retain some trivial unevennesses, yet they are so small and smooth as not to be felt.

Cholo.—A young Indian who has been instructed and brought up amongst Europeans, and speaks the Spanish language.

Chombo.—An abbreviation of Geronimo, or Jerom; used in Peru and Tierra Firme.

Chonta.—A black solid wood heavier than ebony, and remarkable for its elasticity. It grows in great profusion in most of the woods in America, particularly on the banks of the river Marañon, and in the province of Darien, where the Indians make great use of it for their bows. The tree is a species of dactileferous palm, hollow in the inside.

Chorate.—The usual beverage of the common people in Venezuela. It is a sort of chocolate which they make by first boiling the cocoa and extracting from it all the unctuous or oily substance, and the remainder is what they drink, sweetened with coarse sugar or the dregs which are left in the boiler after the fine and the middling sort, or brown, have been taken out.

Chorillo.—A manufactory of coarse cloths in Peru, which differs from the batanes or fulling mills, in being destitute of the fulling mallet, which cannot be used without royal permission.

Chuahu.—The Indians in the province of Miztque, and jurisdiction of Santa Cruz de la Sierra in Peru, give this name to the tertian-ague.

Chuce.—A sort of thick coarse coverlet of wool, fabricated in the province of Aimaraes in the kingdom of Peru.

Chucha.—The *Zarra Mochilera*, or Oppossum, is known by this name in several provinces in Peru.

Chumbe.—A sort of bandage with which the Indian women of the new kingdom of Granada bound their clothes in the time of their Paganism.

Chuno.—A bitter sort of potatoes, dried and cured in the frost, of which they make a sort of pap, or pottage, eaten by all classes of people, and for this reason an incredible traffic is carried on in this article in the mountainous provinces of Peru.

Chupe.—A delicious savoury food, frequent in the different provinces of Peru. It is made of boiled potatoes, cheese, and fried eggs, and is reckoned one of the most dainty dishes.

Chuspas.—A sort of woollen cloth of various colours, manufactured in the province of Parinacochos in the kingdom of Peru.

Cibolo. (*Bos Bisson*).—A sort of wild bull, in the province of Cinaloa in N. America. It differs from the common kind, in having the neck covered with a long shaggy mane, very thick set. The flesh is very good, and in great request among the natives.

Ciego.—A delicious savoury fish, in the river Guayaquil. They give it the appellation of ciego, blind, because it has no visible eyes; but it is not destitute of sight, and escapes when it thinks proper. It is a hand and a half in length, and has no bones.

[*Cienega.*—A swampy place or quagmire.]

Ciento Pies. (*Scolopendra Forficata.*)—A venomous insect or reptile, consisting of 30 articulations or joints, to each of which are attached two feet, making in all 60. From the mouth there come out two pincers furnished with claws, which are black, pointed, and curved, and serve to catch other insects for its food. In the hinder part of the body it has two very long feet, each having four joints, the last of which is furnished with a black nail, pointed and curved, which assists it in progressive motion. They are covered with scales of a yellow colour, live in woods, uncultivated places, storehouses, and even in inhabited apartments. They are from three to ten inches in length. They are very dangerous, having the power of biting both at the head and tail; they bite very hard, and infuse their venom into the wound, which causes a fever and very violent pain.

Cierrate Cierrate.—See *Vergonzosa.*

Cimarron.—A term applied to Negroes who leave their masters to avoid labour, or escape punishment for some offence. They usually retire into the woods, and uncultivated places, whence they venture out at night to search for provisions and steal all that they find. Some live in this state many years in the mountains, subsisting on wild fruits and roots; fish, which they catch in the rivers, lizards, crayfish, and other eatables. When many of these have united, and fixed their residence on a craggy rock, that place is called Palenque. Whoever takes one of these runaways and delivers him to his master is entitled to a reward, which varies in the different provinces.

Cinto.—A jewel of precious stones, worn by ladies in Peru. It is generally about the size of the hand, and is worn at the breast suspended from a fillet of black velvet.

[*Claccho.*—A herb of S. America, of which the cows and pigs are very fond.]

[*Coach-whip Snake.*—See *Serpents.*]

[*Coateco.*—A fruit of S. America resembling a filbert, of which they make rosaries.]

Coca.—A small tree of a bright green colour, whose leaf greatly resembles that of the orange-tree, and is much cultivated in Peru. The juice of this tree is very strengthening, and contains a nourishment almost beyond belief. The Indians will perform long journies with no other supply than a few leaves of this tree, and they remain robust and active during several days without any other sustenance. The most remarkable circumstance in this plant is, that it burns and inflames the mouth of every European who eats it. It grows in countries whose temperature is moderately warm, and forms a very considerable branch of commerce. As the Indians cannot do without it, the duty on it brings great riches into the royal treasury. The natives of the province of Santa Marta call it hayo. It resembles in its properties and the use to which it is applied, the beet-root of the East Indies.

Cocada.—A sort of sweetmeat made of the pulp of the cocoa, grated and made into small cakes, which the Indian women sell in the streets.

[*Cochineal.*—See *Cochinilla.*]

Cochinilla.—A species of insect of the Cleopteran order. Its antennæ are knobbed at the ends, truncated and shaped like the antlers of the deer. Their form is semispherical, and the belly flat. There are 49 species, distinguished by the number and colour of spots on their wings, and by the plants in which they live. This insect is a native of the hot parts of America, and is the animal so much esteemed in every part of the world, for the beautiful red colour which it imparts in dying to silk, linen, cotton, and wool. It is engendered in a plant known in New Spain and most other places by the name of nopalera, or nopal, which, with the exception of the leaves, resembles in every respect the tunas, found in many parts of Andalusia. The leaves of the latter are broad, flat, and full of pricks; those of the former are oblong with several excrescences, and instead of the pricks have a fine soft membrane of lively permanent green colour. The nopales are planted in rows, in holes made in the earth

two yards asunder and half a yard deep. In each hole they place one or two leaves horizontally, and cover them with earth. From the leaf thus planted there afterwards shoots forth a stem, which, in proportion as it increases, spreads out into new branches, and these successively produce fresh leaves. The broadest leaves are those near the trunk of the tree, which, as well as the branches, are full of knots from which the leaves spring. The usual height of the nopales is two yards; and the season at which they arrive at their full beauty is from spring till autumn, which, in Oaxaca and other parts of N. America, happens about the same time as in Spain. The flower is small, of a brilliant red colour, and nearly in the shape of a button. In it is contained the tuna or fruit; and as this increases the flower withers, and at length falls. When the fig or tuna is ripe, the external rind assumes a white colour; but the pulp or inside is so red, that it tinges the urine of those who eat it with the same colour. This circumstance may astonish and terrify those who are ignorant of the cause; but there are few fruits so wholesome or pleasant. The land in which the nopales are to be planted must first be cleared from all other plants and weeds which might deprive them of moisture. As soon as the cochinilla is gathered, which never happens till the insect has attained its full growth, they lop off all the superfluous leaves, in order that it may produce fresh ones the next year; for experience has taught them, that the insect which feeds on new leaves is of a much superior quality to that which feeds on leaves several years old. On the first discovery of this insect, it was believed that it was a kind of fruit, or the seed of some particular plant; an error which arose from their ignorance respecting its method of propagation. But it is now universally acknowledged, that it is an insect which usually lives in damp situations and gardens. It resembles in shape the lady-bird, and, when arrived at its full size, is no larger than a flea. It feeds and lives in the nopal, and deposits its eggs on the leaves. The juice of this plant, which is its only moisture, is converted into its own substance; and, instead of being fluid and aqueous, assumes a beautiful carmine hue. In the months of May and June, the plant is in the most vigorous state, and this is the most favourable time for depositing on the leaves the almost imperceptible eggs; a task which the Indians perform with the most wonderful patience; and, in the short space of two months, it arrives at the state which we have mentioned; but, in the meantime, it is exposed to a multiplicity of dangers. The Northern blasts and violent showers of rain carry away the eggs, and the frost withers and destroys the leaves; nor are there any other means of preventing these calamities, than by making fires at some distance, and filling the air with smoke, which preserves them from the inclemency of the weather. Nor are they exposed to less danger from different birds which hunt after them, and from the grubs which are engendered in the nopal; and, notwithstanding the greatest vigilance to prevent these disasters, the loss is very great. When the insects have attained their full size, they are gathered into glass vessels, taking care not to let them fall; but of this there is no danger when they are at liberty on the leaves, as if in their own habitations, in which they enjoy a most delicious food, skipping from one leaf to another without leaving the plant; and it is no unusual thing to see the leaves entirely covered with insects. After they have been in the glass vessel some time they die, and are put into bags. The Indians have three different methods of killing them; one with hot water, another by fire, and, thirdly, by exposing them to the sun; and hence proceed the different degrees of colour, which is sometimes dark, at others very lively, it being always necessary to proportion the heat, and those who make use of hot water know the precise point to which it should be heated. Those who prefer fire are also very particular that the heat be moderate, and the fineness of the cochineal, in this case, depends upon the vessel not being heated at the time the insect dies. But in our opinion the method of exposing them to the sun is the best. Besides, the precaution in killing the insect, a knowledge of the proper time when they ought to be taken off the leaves, is not less necessary to preserve their quality, and experience alone can teach the cultivator this necessary criterion for which no fixed rule can be given. Hence it happens that, in those provinces where the cochineal is cultivated, the inhabitants of one village differ from those of another in the signs which they require for gathering them; and it frequently happens that two in the same village do not agree. The cochineal in some respects may be compared with the silk-worm, particularly in depositing its eggs. The insects reserved for this purpose are caught at their full growth, and put into a box tightly closed, and in this prison they deposit their eggs and die. The boxes are kept shut till the time for placing the eggs on the nopal, and the quantity contained in the shell of a hen's egg is sufficient to cover a whole tree. The most singular circumstance attending the insect is, that it does not injure, in the smallest degree, the plant on which it feeds, only extracting from between the slender tegument of the leaf, the most succulent part of the juice. The principal places in America in which the cochineal is

cultivated are, Oaxaca, Tlaxcala, Cholula, New Galicia in the kingdom of Mexico, or New Spain; in Guatamala and Chiapa, in Loxa and Ambuto in the kingdom of Quito, and in Tucuman and some other provinces of Peru. But the greatest quantity is produced in Oaxaca, as the inhabitants of almost all the towns make this their only employ, and carry on a very extensive trade in this article.

Cochino de Mar.—See *Capiguara* or *Capivara.*

Coco. (Muceifera Cocos.)—The tree which produces this fruit is very high, straight, and always continues to grow, and is thinner in the middle than at the extremities. It first puts forth the principal stem, which is soon surrounded by others smaller, which interweave one with another and strengthen the tree. It blossoms every month in the year, and is always covered with flowers and fruit, which hang in bunches and give a constant supply of ripe fruit. When the fruit is ripe, it measures seven or eight inches in diameter in the middle, and from 10 to 12 in height. In it there are two things to be considered, the nut and the shell. The latter, which covers and incloses the former, is composed of coarse fibres of a flaxy nature adhering close to the kernel, which is covered with a thin skin, smooth, hard, and of a green colour, and the pulp is the more white in proportion as the rind is hard. The kernel, when stripped of the rind, is five or six inches in diameter and seven or eight in height, four or five lines thick in the middle, and six or seven at the end. It is very hard, of an obscure colour, with some grey threads mixed with white. At the extremity, where it is attached to the tree, there are three circular holes, two or three lines in diameter, closed with a grey spungy substance resembling cork, through which it apparently receives nourishment. When these are pierced, it emits a white liquor like whey, which has a very agreeable pungent taste. Whilst the cocoa is tender, that is to say a considerable time before it is ripe, it is full of this water, which decreases in proportion as the fruit ripens. When the shell is broken we find the inside lined with a white substance, which, before the fruit is perfectly ripe, is about of the consistence of coagulated milk; but, when it is arrived at perfect maturity, it is of the consistence of cheese-curds, five lines thick, and as white as snow. It is very refreshing and agreeable to the taste, but very compact and hard of digestion. When ripe it contains very little water, this having concreted by degrees, serving as a nutriment to the solid substance. In some nuts there are found round balls like cotton, called spunge of cocoa, which seems to have been the surplus of the common nutrition, of which they make a kind of sweetmeat very delicious and scarce, as the spunge is found in very few; but the sweetmeats made of the kernel of the nut are very common. The rind of the cocoa when pounded is made into oakum. There is a great variety of palm-trees and cocoa-trees, which are distinguished by their size without any other material difference.

Cocobolo.—A hard heavy wood of a dark red colour when newly cut, but afterwards turning black like ebony. It is used by cabinet-makers for bedsteads and other pieces of furniture, but it is very brittle.

[*Colegial Mayor.*—Prebend.]

Colibri.—See *Picaflor.*

Colpa.—The Alcaparrosa, a kind of mineral earth found in copper mines, is known by this name in several provinces in Peru, particularly in Lucanas.

Comejen. (Termes Fatale.)—A very diminutive insect, resembling the moth in its destructive qualities; but so very active that, in the space of one night, it will penetrate the hardest substances; and there have been instances of its having perforated from one side to the other, in above-mentioned time, a bale of paper containing 24 reams. It is very frequent in hot rainy countries; and the greatest precaution is necessary to prevent it from entering the magazines, for it would destroy every thing in a very short time. The pains which this insect takes to insinuate itself under cover, is worthy of notice. The mansion is made of earth, and a glutinous substance resembling a swallow's nest, and is made with incredible dispatch. It is about two inches in diameter; usually built under the eaves, and continued all the length of the wall, however long it may be. Tar is generally used to prevent its effects, and quicklime is recommended by Linnæus.

[*Comendador.*—A knight, prelate, prefect, or commander of some Mercenarian convents; or of those of St. Anthony the abbot. He who has a revenue in commendam.]

[*Comican.*—The name for chess amongst the Araucanians: and what is extraordinary, this game has been common amongst them from time immemorial.]

Condor. (Vultur Gryphus.)—The largest bird hitherto known. Linnæus says it is 16 feet in breadth, from the tip of one wing to that of the other. The body is larger than the Golden Eagle; the plumage is black, except on the shoulders which are entirely white; the head is covered with a kind of down, very soft; the eyes are black, with an iris of a reddish brown colour; the bill, which is four inches long, is thick and hooked, black near the base and white towards the point; the thighs are 10 inches and eight lines in length; and the leg is only six inches long, with four strong toes on each foot; the hinder toe is nearly two inches long, having only one joint, and is armed with a long claw measuring eight lines; the middle toe has three joints, its length is five inches and 10 lines not including the claw, which is curved, whitish and 22 lines long; the other toes are something shorter, but are furnished with claws equally formidable; the tail is entire, and very small in proportion to the huge bulk of its body. The female is less than the male, of a brown colour, but destitute of the ring round the neck, found in the male; but she has a tuft of feathers on her head. The condors build their nests on the rocky prominences in the most rugged parts of the mountains. They lay two large eggs far exceeding, in magnitude, those of the turkey. Their usual food is the flesh of animals which they find dead, or which they kill: like wolves they frequently attack flocks of sheep and goats, and will kill calves a year old when separated from the mother. To effect this several of them unite, and besetting the calf on a sudden they surround it, with their wings extended, and pull out its eyes that it may not escape, and then they tear it to pieces in a moment. The peasants, who watch every opportunity of destroying these aërial pirates, wrap themselves in the skin of an ox newly slain, and lay themselves flat on the ground: the condor deceived by the appearance, thinking it some dead body, approaches the peasant, who immediately seizes their legs with his hands, which are protected with strong gloves. As soon as the bird is seized, other peasants, who had lain in ambuscade, run to assist in securing and killing the captive. Others more cautious make a small inclosure with palisadoes, and place in it the carcase of some dead animal: the condor, whose eye is very piercing and sense of smell very quick, immediately falls upon it, and loads itself in such a manner that it cannot rise on the wing, through the small extent of the inclosure; otherwise, if it gets upon any eminence it flies with the greatest ease, however much it may have eaten, rising to such a height that it hides itself entirely in the clouds, or looks no larger than a thrush. Abbot Molina says, that this species only differs in colour from the large yellow vulture of Switzerland, called Laemmen Geyer.

Congo.—A class of African Negroes peculiar to the kingdom of the same name. They may be distinguished from all others by their shining jet black colour, and have a variety of names from the different provinces of that kingdom.

[*Connelter.*—A dignity amongst the regular clergy; also, an officer of the Inquisition, who assists in causes, together with the inquisitors and the ordinary.]

[*Consultor del Santo Oficio.* See *Consultor.*]

Contrayerba. (Corymbium quinquenervæ.)—A plant whose stem is two feet in height, of a violet colour, and divided, at intervals, by knots. At these knots the leaves put forth on opposite sides, three or four inches long, narrow, denticulated, and of dark green colour. The shoots which spring from the joints bear a flower, greatly resembling the herb agrimony, except that in the centre of the leaves, there is found a red grub with 11 small rings. It grows in shady, cold mountains, and is a native of America; whence the first Spaniards, who visited that country, brought it into Europe, where it is now become very common: it is an efficacious antidote against coagulated poison. Its virtue as a febrifuge is very great; it strengthens the stomach, expels wind, and restrains dissenteries. In America it is given in decoction to those who are afflicted with the small-pox, measles, and in cases of indigestion. In Guayana it is called tusilla. The term contrayerba is usually applied to different plants, which serve as an antidote or counterpoise, particularly to the root so well known in apothecaries' shops in Europe, which is procured from the plant Dorstenia Drakena of Linnæus.

[*Convocatoria.*—The Araucanian mode of declaring war; namely, by sending from town to town an arrow clenched in a dead man's hand.]

Copal. (Copalifera.)—A resin or gum, extracted by incision from a large tree, whose leaves are long, broad, and pointed, with a fruit resembling the quince. This gum is hard, yellow, bright, and transparent; and, when exposed to the fire, exhales an odour like that of olivan: it is easily liquefied, and is one of the best varnishes. The wood is greatly esteemed, and is made into tables, chairs, writing-desks,

&c. The tree is found in Mexico, in the province of Esmeraldas in Quito, and in several other places.

[Copal is used by the Indians, in the W. Indies, to burn before their gods; it is good against cold distempers in the head. In the Indian tongue, it signifies all sorts of resins distilling from any trees. See Ray's Hist. Plant. p. 1846. Monardes says it is hot in the second degree, and moist in the first; also laxative, as having some watery parts. Accost, in his Nat. Hist. of W. Indies, only says, it is very medicinal, and an excellent perfume burnt, p. 266.]

Copé.—See *Naphta.*

Copei.—A sort of fossil pitch, found in the district of St. Helena, in the province of Guayaquil in Quito. It is mixed with tar to careen ships.

Coral.—A snake of a very beautiful appearance, and active poison; it is generally a yard long, and an inch in diameter. The skin is beautifully diversified with different colours; it has one ring of a perfect dark red, another of a very lively yellow, and a third of a fine jet black colour, in regular succession, all the length of the body; the head is flat, and the jaws are furnished with very sharp grinders. Near these the venom is deposited in small bladders, which burst when it bites, and the malignant venom is introduced into the wound. The effect is so instantaneous that the person who is bitten immediately swells and begins to shed blood from every part of his body, all his veins having burst, and he expires in an instant drowned in his own blood. There are very few who are cured of the bite of this animal; and if it happens to be in a vein it is absolutely impracticable, because the activity of the poison does not allow time to apply the proper remedies. This serpent is very frequent in every part of America. Bomare confounds it with the yacumana of las Amazonas; but the difference between them is very great.

Corita.—A wooden tray containing two fanegas of maize, in which the Indians, in the province of California, carry their fruits from one coast to another. They are accustomed to throw themselves into the water; and thus, by means of swimming, to push the burthen before them. [These trays are, sometimes, sufficiently large to hold a hundred weight of maize.]

Corozo.—A sort of wild palm, whose trunk grows to the height of two or three fathoms, of the thickness of a man's body, covered with an immense number of long slender pricks; the leaves and nuts are covered in the same manner. When the palm is cut and the leaves boiled, there appears a cavity near the nut, from which there distils a vinous liquid which remains sweet 24 hours, and as many more between sweet and sour. By washing the cavity every day the distillation continues as long as any juice remains. This wine is taken the first thing in the morning for the course of 15 days, or more if necessary; promotes fecundity in women who are barren, helps their courses, and cures consumptive diseases. The fruit is of an irregular size and shape, not very round; it is never eaten except whilst it is very tender and nearly of the hardness of cocoa; it is very sweet and agreeable to the taste, and when ripe resembles ivory. The Indians make of it small statues, images of saints, and other curious articles. The corozos are divided into five different species.

Corpiño.—A sort of jacket tied in front with ribband, and worn by the women of Peru.

[*Corregidor.*—One of the chief of the police of the Indians, a person that is particularly charged with their protection, who can remonstrate in their favour with the local government; but, if redress is not granted, he appeals to a superior jurisdiction. He is always a Spaniard, and obliged to reside amongst them. This office has been found to be extremely necessary, from the particular disposition the Indian chiefs have to domineer over their own fellow-beings, and their propensity to those vices they are enjoined to correct in their own clans, particularly drunkenness. It is this *corregidor* who also receives, in the name of the king, the capitation tax, or tribute exacted from the Indians, the mode by which the Spaniards establish their census of Indian population. Where there are missionaries, the duties of the *corregidor* are generally added to the pastoral functions.

Crimes, amongst the Indians, are punished with greater severity than when committed by whites. The attorneys-general are, by the rules of their office, their legal patrons, and in all the courts are obliged to plead their causes gratis, equally with those of the government for whom they act. One of their privileges is, that they are considered minors in all civil transactions, and they are not bound

to the execution of any contract that is not formally passed before a Spanish magistrate. They can dispose of no landed property but at public auction.

The Indians are exempt from the duty of *alcavala*, which is imposed on every thing sold. Their annual capitation tax is rated at two dollars per head on the males only, from the age of 18 to 50; but it is very often dispensed with by the *corregidor*, particularly if any great or public misfortune has happened amongst them; and many of them, when the time of the collection comes round, abscond into the woods.

The Inquisition, by a particular and express dispensation, is deprived of all authority over the Indians; their heresies are only noticed by the bishops, and their magical spells and incantations come under the consideration of the secular and civil government, but persuasion only is used. By a particular act of the ecclesiastical council of Lima, the reprimands of the church do not reach them; their ignorance acts as a paracensure.

The greatest punishment that can be inflicted on an Indian, is the depriving him of his hair, which also forms the great pride of the Africans.]

[*Correr buitres.*—The chase of the condor, to which the Spaniards give the second place in their amusements, after the bull-fight.]

[*Corrector.*—Inspector.]

[*Corregimiento.*—The district and jurisdiction of the corregidor, or chief magistrate.]

Cotita.—A synonymous term for Mary, used in most part of S. America.

Coto.—A large tumour rising in the throat, which is an endemical disease in some towns. It is attributed, with a great deal of foundation, to the water impregnated with mineral particles; hence it is very prevalent in all the towns situated on the river Guali, in the new kingdom of Granada, because the inhabitants drink the water of that river, which flows through mines of silver.

Cotopriz, or *Cocopris.*—A fruit which grows in the province of Guayana, and is called by the natives cuspiritu; it is the size and shape of a cherry; after the skin is taken off, the inside appears of a whitish colour, resembling in taste and consistency a Muscadine grape. The tree which produces it is very high, full of leaves, and always green.

[*Cougar.*—The body of this animal is about five feet long; his legs longer in proportion to his body, than those of the common cat; his colour is a dark sallow; in his habits and manners he resembles the rest of the family. He is found in the southern states, and there called the tiger.]

Coya.—A venomous insect, generated in hot countries, such as the province of San Juan de los Llanos, and particularly in the plains of Aciva. It is the same shape and size as that which is known in Europe by the name of cochinilla de San Anton, or cochineal of St. Anthony. It neither stings nor bites; but if it happens to burst and its blood touch any part of the body, except the soles of the feet and the palms of the hand, it causes immediate death, attended by violent convulsions. As this is the effect of a sudden coagulation of the blood, the only remedy is to make a fire of straw, and two men must take the patient by the hands and feet and draw him repeatedly through the flame. The instinct in animals which are pasturing and see one of these insects near them is very singular, they instantly snort and gallop off in another direction.

[*Coyaba.*—The elysium of the Araucanians.]

Coyote.—A generical term applied to the product of the earth or country of New Spain, as an Indian coyote, a wolf coyote, and cider coyote.

Crane.—A sea-water fowl, very common in the Bermuda Islands, and remarkable for building its nest in holes excavated in the earth. This, perhaps, may be the cra-cra of the Dictionary of Arts and Sciences.

Crizneja.—A strong, pliant cane, growing in great abundance in Peru, of which the Indians make bridges over the unfordable rivers.

[*Cruzada.*—The cruzada, being indulgences formerly granted by Popes to those who went to the wars against infidels, so called from the cross they wore. Also a bull now granting such privileges to them that give a small alms for carrying on the war against infidels.]

Cucaracha.—An insect of a dark, disgusting appearance and very nauseous smell; it is a kind of beetle, with wings of a brown and sometimes of a whitish colour. It is principally found in places where provisions are kept, in corners, and on the walls behind pictures, and is the most abundant in ships and wet countries: it is very destructive to cloth and provisions.

[*Cuche.*—A fish peculiar to S. America.]

[*Cuckow.* (*Cuculus Caroliniensis.*)—Of N. America. These birds are said not to pair, like the rest of the feathered tribes. When the female appears on the wing she is often attended by two or three males. Unlike all other birds, she does not build a nest of her own, but takes the opportunity, while the hedge sparrow (probably they make use of other nests) is laying her eggs, to deposit her egg among the rest, leaving the future care of it entirely to the hedge sparrow. The cuckow's egg requires no longer incubation than her own. When the hedge sparrow has sat her usual time, and disengaged the young cuckow and some of her own offspring from their shells, the young cuckow, astonishing as it may seem, immediately sets about clearing the nest of the young sparrows and the remaining unhatched eggs, and with surprising expertness soon accomplishes the business, and remains sole possessor of the nest, and the only object of the sparrow's future care.]

Cucúma.—A sort of bread, different from the cazave, made of a root resembling the yuca, in the town of Tama, in the province of San Juan.

[*Cudessera.*—The Araucanian term for an old maid, meaning idle, old, good for nothing.]

Cuja.—A matrimonial couch, very elegantly wrought, is called by this name in the kingdoms of Peru and Tierra Firme.

Culebrilla.—A disease peculiar to hot climates, and more particularly prevalent in the Island of Cuba. It begins with a fever and decay of strength; it afterwards makes its appearance in the form of a thread, which appears of a whitish colour through the skin of the leg, and increases till it has gone round the leg. The best method of curing it is by opening the skin with a lance, at one extremity of the worm, and after some time the insect puts forth its head; this they immediately wind on a small stick, taking the greatest care to hinder it from breaking. Having pulled it as far as they can, it is tied up with a bandage, and the operation is continued daily till the whole is extracted. Great care must be taken not to wet the sore part, for fear of convulsions, and the rags which have been used to wipe the matter must be immediately burnt; for this disease is so contagious, that it is easily imparted by contact. If, unfortunately, the worm breaks before the whole has been got out, the infection causes an increase of the disease, and it will require a long time to effect a cure. The Negroes are the most subject to it, and were the first who brought it from the coast of Guinea and introduced it into America. Some entertain doubts whether it be any animated being, or no more than a malignant humour which assumes this form.

Culen, (*Psosolea Glandulosa,*) or *Albahaquilla.*—A shrub peculiar to the kingdom of Chile, where it grows spontaneously. The leaf, in point of odour, resembles that of sweet basil, and contains a balsam which is very good for wounds, as Abbot Molina assures us from experience. The flower is long, shaped like an ear of corn, white, and may be included amongst legumes. Sometimes the culen grows to the height of a moderate sized tree. An infusion of the dry leaves in the method of tea, is said to possess specific virtue in cases of indigestion and in expelling worms, and is now used by some people in Europe. There is also another species of culen which grows in the same kingdom, and is called amarillo.

Cumbes.—A sort of woollen cloth, manufactured in the province of Parinacochas, in the kingdom of Peru.

Cunaguaro. (*Feliz Onza.*)—A quadruped, in the province of Guayana; it is a species of tiger, to which it bears a near resemblance in its shape, actions, and dispositions, and can only be distinguished from it in the size which is less, and in the difference of the ground brown colour of the spots. It is also called cat, and lobo cerbal, or hart-wolf; it is very like the wild cat, and of the size of a common dog; it feeds on prey like the tiger, and may be tamed if taken young, but it is always necessary to have it chained during the night, or it would destroy all the hens and turkies that may come in its way.

[*Cura.*—A cure or parish.]

Curbinata.—A fish found in the rivers and lakes in America, remarkable on account of its having above each eye a white transparent stone, of the size of an olive stone, which possesses very great virtue in urinary complaints and in dissolving stones which have concreted in the bladder; hence it is much sought after and held in great esteem. In the new kingdom of Grenada this fish is called pavon and tlacamichin, by Hernandez.

Curimullimbo.—See *Tigrilla.*

Curiquinqui, or *Beteado de Oro.*—Likewise called ave del Inca, or the Inca's bird. In Peru it is larger than a hen, and the wings and tail are also much longer; it is of a bright brown colour, variegated with shades of a deep yellow, or gold colour, from which it has derived its name. This bird is almost as domestic as the hen, is seldom seen alone, takes a very short fly in the morning when roused from the perch, and assembles in large bodies in the fields or meadows, where they incessantly run about clearing the fields of insects till they return home to sleep at night. It is a mortal enemy to the snake, which it attacks opposing its wing as a shield to guard against the sting; and having killed the snake, it separates the head from the body and eats it. The inhabitants of Quito says, that if the snake happens to bite the bird it runs immediately in quest of a herb which is a secure remedy for the poison.

Currucal.—A tree of a very hard wood, and greatly esteemed, which grows in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Granada. They extract from this tree a sort of balsam, which is held in great esteem in the forementioned country.

Cusicun. (*Didelphis Mursupialis.*)—A quadruped, in Guayana, in New Andalusia. Its size is about that of a cat, and it is covered with thick, smooth hair, of a brown colour. Father Gumilla says, that this animal has got no tail, but he must either have been in a mistake or can never have seen one, for it certainly has a very long and brushy tail. It lives retired during the day, and comes out in quest of food from sunset till day-break. It is brought up in the house like a cat, and leaves no corner in the house, walls, or ceiling which it does not scrutinize to steal all the provisions which it can find. In New Spain it is called claquari.

Cuy. (*Mus Porcellus.*)—A sort of small rabbit, which some have confounded with the Indian hedge-hog, notwithstanding the difference in their figure as well as generical characteristics; it is something bigger than the large field-mole; the body is nearly of a conic shape; the ears small, covered with hair, and pointed; the snout long, and the teeth like those of the rabbit or hare; the fore feet are about four inches long, and the hind feet nearly an inch longer; and the tail so very short, that it is scarcely visible at first sight. As this animal is frequently kept in a domestic state, it is very subject to change colour; hence we see white, black, grey, ash-coloured, and some diversified with spots of different colours. The hair is extremely fine, but so very short that it cannot be spun, and the flesh is very white and good. The female brings forth young once every month, generally five or six each time. Notwithstanding the resemblance which there is betwixt the cuy, or cavy, and the rabbit, they avoid each other's company, and are never seen together. The cuy is very much afraid of cats and rats, which persecute and destroy them.

[*Cygnus ferus.*—The swan is the largest of the aquatic tribe of birds which is seen in N. America. One of them has been known to weigh 36 pounds, and to be six feet in length from the bill to the feet, when stretched. It makes a sound resembling that of a trumpet, both when in the water and on the wing.—BELKNAP.]

D.

Daconia.—An establishment in the Dutch settlements of Surinam for the reception of the poor.

Daino.—A small fallow deer, in N. America. This animal is very prolific, and abounds in Canada. The Indians take great quantities of this kind of deer by hunting. It is esteemed chiefly on account of its skin, of which is made fine chamois, or shammy leather. Great quantities of the chamois are exported to England and France.

Dama.—A fish which swarms in the bay and river of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito.

[*Deer.*—The red deer has round branching horns. Of this species there are three or four different kinds or varieties; one of which, found on the Ohio river, and in its vicinity, is very large, and there

commonly called the elk. The fallow deer has branching, palmated horns. In the United States these animals are larger than the European, of a different colour, and supposed by some to be of a different species. In the S. States are several animals supposed to be varieties of the roe deer.]

[*Depositario General.*—Receiver General.]

Deuca. (*Fringilla Deuca.*)—A small bird, in the kingdom of Chile. This bird is of the same species with the goldfinch, but somewhat larger; its plumage is of a beautiful dark-blue colour; its note, especially at day-break, sweet and soft. The deuca is generally seated upon the house-top, after the example of the sparrow, which it resembles in many particular qualities. Abbot Molina is of opinion, that this is the blue sparrow of New Zealand, of which Cook has given us a description.

Dictamo real. (*Dictamus albus.*)—A plant of the class decandria monogynia; the calix consists of five leaves, and the corolla of an equal number of open petals; the filaments have some glandular points, and five capsules united. As this plant is very well known in Europe, an elaborate description of its different properties would be tedious and fruitless; we shall therefore content ourselves with observing, that the deer and vacuñas are very partial to this plant, and that when eaten it produces in them very large bizoar stones.

[*Difinidor, Difinitor,* or *Judge of Appeals.*—An assessor, or counsellor of a general or provincial, among the clergy.]

[*District,* or *Partido.*—Signifies a military division.]

Dividivi.—A tree, growing in the province of Venezuela, which produces sheaths similar to those of the tamarind, from the which a very black die is produced. The company of the Caracas have, at different times, sent great quantities of these sheaths to Spain to be employed in the composition of dye. The Baron of Valbroxa published a treatise on the mode of using that composition.

[*Doctoral.*—Belonging to a doctor.]

Dominico. (*Musa Sapientium.*)—A species of small plantain. This plantain is not more than half the size of the banana, or common plantain, but the pulp of the former is more tender, juicy, and delicate than that of the latter. The fruit of this plantain is near a span in length, and an inch and half in diameter; its outward peel is not quite so thick as that of the banana.

Dormilona.—A plant, growing in the settlement of Surinam and other parts of America. It was first discovered by Maria Sabila Merian, a celebrated naturalist in Germany, who,—from the singular property which this plant possesses of placing its leaves one upon another every night, and keeping them perfectly close till day-break, when they are expanded with the dew,—gave it the name of *dormilona,* or great sleeper. We are also indebted to this gentleman for the discovery of the vulnerary powers which are inherent in the leaves of this extraordinary plant. There is a tree now in the garden of his Excellency the Count of Campo Alanjé.

Drago. (*Croton sanguinium.*)—A tree of the class monœtia, with a calix. The corolla consists of five petals, and the pip contains small seeds. There are five species of this tree, all of which are peculiar to America. This tree produces a very valuable gum, and is exceedingly useful in pharmacy, and is generally called dragon's blood. This gum is transported into Europe, sometimes in drops of an oval figure, wrapped up in leaves, and sometimes in solid masses, formed by its oozing, which, reduced to powder, assumes a beautiful crimson colour. The gum may be dissolved either in spirits of wine, or oils, when it yields a great quantity of liquid. It is esteemed a powerful astringent, and is given to those who labour under fluxes. The wood of this tree is cut into small pieces, about the thickness of a finger, with one end parted into fibres. Thus prepared it is much used as a tooth-brush. Fernandez calls it esquahutil.

Drago.—There are several different species of dragon's blood. For these we refer the reader to the dictionary of Valmont and Bomare, where he will find that the first species is dracona; or, as Linnæus calls it, draco. This is a tree which abounds in every part of the Canary Islands, and produces an excellent resin.

Durazno. (*Prunus Armeniaca.*)—A tall and bulky biferous fruit-tree, whose genus seems to be that of the peach. Its fruit, though considerably larger, resembles the European apricot. The tree has been propagated to such a degree in Buenos Ayres, that, although it be the only wood used in ordinary consumption, its diminution is still imperceptible.

E.

Elemi. (*Amydes Elemifera.*)—A sort of resin which some very improperly call gum. There are two sorts of elemi, the one genuine, and the other spurious; the former is the produce of Æthiopia, the latter of America. The appearance of the Æthiopian elemi is yellow, intermixed with green and white particles. It has a most agreeable odour, and a pungent, bitter taste. It is inflammable, and dissolves with the greatest facility in oleaginous liquors. These two latter properties distinguish it from gum. The elemi of Æthiopia is an article extremely rare in Europe, but the elemi of America is more abundant. The colour of the American borders on white, and is extracted from a large tree, whose leaves are not unlike those of the pear. These leaves are in some degree pellucid, and exhale a fragrant odour. This resin, applied exteriorly, is very serviceable in resolving tumours and cleansing wounds.

[*Encomienda.*—A subdivision into which the governments in S. America are portioned. The application of the encomiendas was by putting a certain quantity of Indian population, contained in defined boundaries, immediately under the charge of a respectable Spaniard, who lived in the midst of them, and whose province it was to settle their family disputes, and to support their rights against civil oppression; to see their children baptized, to unite and retain them in clans or villages, to instruct them in the principles of morality and the Christian religion, to train them in the arts of civil life, to suppress irregularities in their females, and to destroy in them the fanaticism of their old modes of worship and superstitious customs. For the whole observance of these cares and duties, they made him presents of poultry, or appropriated to his use annually some days of labour; nevertheless that influence which the encomienderos acquired, sometimes became too productive of abuses, and the office was often solicited by persons at court, who had their agents there, as a distinguished species of sovereignty, which reduced the Indians to vassals, and in some cases became hereditary. This system was afterwards superseded by the plan of the missionaries.]

Equis.—A serpent in the country of the Amazonas, so called from its having the figure of an x. It is of a dark colour, and spotted upon the loins.

[*Ermine.*—This animal does not differ materially from the weasel in size, form, or habits; even his colour is the same in summer, except that the end of his tail is black, and the edges of his ears and toes are white. In winter he is entirely white, except the tip of the tail: he is generally considered as forming a species distinct from the weasel; but Linnæus makes them the same. They are said to be found in Canada; and Dr. Belknap mentions, that a few have been seen in New Hampshire.

In addition to the preceding, there is another variety of this family. It appears to differ from the weasel in no respect, except its colour, which is perfectly white, both in summer and winter.]

Esponga.—Of cocoa. See Coco.

Esponjilla. (*Mormordia operculata.*)—A fruit which grows in the neighbourhood of the city of Barinas, in the province of Venezuela, in New Granada. Its shape is that of a hen's-egg, but somewhat larger. It is full of fibres, interwoven with a substance resembling the esponja, or spunge. The esponjilla serves as a sweet and gentle emetic, and in infusion is an efficacious purge. The esponjilla is the fruit of a small plant, which climbs up and sustains itself by the aid of large shrubs which happen to be in its way. This plant is found in great abundance in the province of Loxa, in the kingdom of Quito.

Estancia.—A term which corresponds with the English word farm, chiefly used in the kingdom of Peru. Chacra is used as a term synonymous with that of estancia.

Estoraque. (*Storax.*)—The estoraque is a solid, dry resin, of a red colour, and possesses a peculiar fragrance. There are two kinds, the calamita, or storax in tears, and the common storax. The former is more pure and fine than the latter. The calamita is transported either in small grains, or in solid masses composed of these grains. Formerly it was prepared in canes for transportation. The common storax is also pure and fine, but in a less degree than the calamita. It is not prepared like the other in grains, but in large consistent masses. Both of these are distinct from the storax sold by apothecaries, which is a composition of different substances, mixed with small quantities of the

calamita or genuine storax; whence arises a composition which so much resembles the calamita, that it requires great experience and precaution to discover the fraud. The only difference between the two kinds of the real storax is, that the one which is brought in grains or tears is the natural sudorific drops which ooze spontaneously through the pores of the tree, which is called storax officinalis, and is very large. The other is extracted by an incision made in the tree, particularly in the province of Moxas, in Quito, and in Tunja, in the kingdom of Granada. In both these places it is used for incense in the churches. In medicine the storax is esteemed both as an astringent and balsamatic in pectoral diseases, and it is given as a cordial in case of giddiness or pains in the head. There is also another storax used by apothecaries, and a very different thing from these two, which are properly called the real storax.

Estrella del Mar. (*Asterias.*)—Sea-star, an insect, the body of which is inclosed in a ductile crustation, covered with dentated points, with the entrance in the centre of five valves. This crustation has the figure of a star, and is well known to the investigators of natural history. Some writers rank it among the lithophites. There are 16 species. They swarm in the island of St. Bartholomew, and some other parts of the coasts of America.

[*Exchange and coin.*—As the exchange and coin of Brasil are very complex to the unaccustomed traveller, a table of each is annexed, premising that the imaginary rea is used as well in Brasil as Portugal, and that the table of exchange is calculated at the rate of 67½, or 5*s.* 7½*d.* sterling for the milrea.

TABLE OF EXCHANGE.

Reas.	£.	*s.*	*d.*	*Reas.*	£.	*s.*	*d.*	£.	*s.*	*d.*	*Reas.*	£.	*s.*	*d.*	*Reas.*
10	0	0	0⅝	4,000	1	2	6	1,000	0	0	3,556,000	6	0	0	21,336
20	0	0	1⅜	5,000	1	8	1½	500	0	0	1,778,000	5	0	0	17,780
50	0	0	3⅜	6,000	1	13	9	400	0	0	1,422,400	4	0	0	14,224
100	0	0	6¾	7,000	1	19	4½	300	0	0	1,066,800	3	0	0	10,668
200	0	1	1½	8,000	2	5	0	200	0	0	711,200	2	0	0	7,112
300	0	1	8½	9,000	2	10	7	100	0	0	355,600	1	0	0	3,556
400	0	2	3	10,000	2	16	3	50	0	0	177,800	0	10	0	1,778
500	0	2	9¾	20,000	5	12	6	40	0	0	142,240	0	5	0	889
600	0	3	4½	30,000	8	8	9	30	0	0	106,680	0	4	0	711
700	0	3	11¼	40,000	11	5	0	20	0	0	71,120	0	3	0	533
800	0	4	6	50,000	14	1	3	10	0	0	35,560	0	2	0	356
900	0	5	0¾	† 100,000	28	2	6	9	0	0	32,004	0	1	0	178
* 1,000	0	5	7½	500,000	140	12	6	8	0	0	28,448	0	0	6	89
2,000	0	11	3	‡ 1,000,000	281	5	0	7	0	0	24,892	0	0	1	15
3,000	0	16	10½												

It thus appears that the Portuguese imaginary rea is used merely to express their cash by round numbers, while we employ three terms of figures for that purpose; viz. pounds, shillings, and pence.

TABLE OF COIN.

Gold.

	Reas.	£.	*s.*	*d.*
A dobloon is 40 patackas or	12,800	3	12	0
Half ditto - 20 - - -	6,400	1	16	0
Gold piece of 12½ - - -	4,000	1	2	6
Ditto - - 6¼ - - -	2,000	0	11	3
Ditto - - 3 and 2 vintins	1,000	0	5	7½

Silver.

	Reas.	£.	*s.*	*d.*
Two patackas is 16 vintins or	640	0	3	7¼
A patack - - 8 - - - -	320	0	1	9
Half ditto - - 4 - - -	160 say	0	0	11

Copper.

Two vintins - - - is - -	40	0	0	2¾
One ditto - - - - - - - -	20	0	0	1⅜

The Spanish dollar circulates universally in Brasil; but, by a singular custom, if paid by strangers, it passes at from 720 (4*s.* ⅝*d.*) to 750 (4*s.* 2½*d.*) reas only, while its value, if received from the Portuguese, is estimated at 800 reas, or 4*s.* 6*d.*; making a difference of 10 per cent. loss to foreigners.

[*Exis.*—A description of snake, found in S. America.]

* Say a mill, or thousand reas; two mill, three mill, &c.

† A cem mill, or hundred thousand.

‡ Conti des reas, or a million.

F.

Falldellin.—A sort of upper petticoat, worn by the ladies of Peru, which, for the greatest part, is made of woollen, and adorned from the bottom half a yard upwards, with various rich stuffs, fine lace and embroidery. It is made with such elegance and taste, that it has a very beautiful appearance, and is fitted to the body like the petticoat of a Gallician lady.

Famacosio. (*Filez Famacosius.*)—A ferocious quadruped, in the province of Paraguay, in Peru. In figure and bulk it resembles the mastiff, and its head is like that of a tiger: it has no tail: in swiftness and ferocity it is matchless. If any person comes within view of this animal, he may reckon himself as become a secure prey to it, unless he have the opportunity of climbing into a tree to evade its pursuit. When thus disappointed the animal rears his fore feet against the tree, and roars hideously till others come to his assistance; then they gnaw the tree about the root till it falls to the ground. If the distressed fugitive has no arms to kill them, his death is inevitable. To diminish them the Mañacicas Indians, where they are the most abundant, inclose themselves in a circumvallation of pallisadoes, and begin to bellow till these animals, attracted by their cries, crowd to them, and begin to gnaw the stakes to find an entrance. Whilst they are thus employed, the Indians shower their arrows upon them with such skill and dexterity that they never let one escape. In this manner they kill great numbers.

[*Fanaga*, or *Spanish Bushel.*—Equal to nearly 3 bushels or 150 pounds weight English.]

Fara.—A name which in New Granada, and on the river Orinoco, they apply to the oppossum.—See *Mochilera.*

[*Field Mouse.*—Of N. America. This species in England is called the short-tailed field mouse. It has a general resemblance to the common house mouse; but both its body and tail are larger, and his hair has a slight reddish tint. Its food depends very much on its situation. In gardens it often destroys young fruit trees by eating their bark; in fields and meadows it feeds on the roots of grass, sometimes leaving a groove in the sward, which appears as if it had been cut out with a gouge. In woods they are said to feed on acorns, and to lay up a large store of them in their burrows.]

Figuera.—A large compact tree, growing in the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, and used in the building of ships.

[*Fillippi.*—A coin of the value of five francs.]

[*Fiscal.*—In strict sense cannot be rendered into English; sometimes the king's-solicitor, and sometimes acting like the attorney-general; also any thing belonging to the Exchequer; also a censurer.]

[*Fiscal, Procurador.*—The king's solicitor-general, the solicitor of the Exchequer.]

[*Fisher.*—An animal, in Canada called pekan: in the United States frequently the black cat, but improperly, as he does not belong to the class of cats. He has a general resemblance to the martin, but is considerably larger, being from 20 to 24 inches in length, and 12 in circumference. His tail is a little more than half his length; its hair long and bushy: his fore legs about 4½ inches long, his hinder legs six inches: his ears short and round: his colour is black, except the head, neck, and shoulders, which are a dark grey. He lives by hunting, and occasionally pursues his prey in the water. Found in the N. States of America.]

[*Flemish.*—Ell, a measure containing 27 inches.]

Flibustiers.—A body of cruizers or pirates, which assembled from every quarter of the globe, and took the name of buccaniers, fixing their residence in the island of St. Domingo. See *Buccaniers.* Such as were not content with the situation of life in that island, united in bodies of 40 or 50 men, and having a vessel, put to sea to rob and plunder every ship that fell in their way. As this mode of life opened to them an easy course of aggrandizing their property, and indulging their passions to excess, their numbers were, in a short time, considerably increased. Having made themselves masters of the island of Tortuga, and their naval force being considerably strong, they began to infest the coasts of the Spanish settlements, and committed the most cruel atrocities. This numerous gang of abandoned wretches, subject neither to law nor religion, greatly annoyed the Spaniards. The French government brought them over to its interest, and induced them to fight its battles.

Pursuing this conduct they continued to be the scourge of America till the year 1714, when the Count of Blanai, governor of the French colony in St. Domingo, constrained them to desist from their piracy, and submit to denization; and thus the sea became free from their depredations.

[*Fox.*—Of foxes there are a great variety; such as the silver fox, red fox, grey fox, cross fox, brant fox, and several others. Naturalists have generally supposed that there is more than one species of foxes, but they differ very much in their mode of arranging them. It is highly probable, however, that there is but one species of these animals, as they are found in all their varieties of size, and of shades variously intermixed, in different parts of the United States. Foxes and other animals furnished with fur, of the N. States, are larger than those of the S.]

Fragata. (*Procellosa Fragata.*)—A sea fowl, found always between the tropics. It takes higher, longer, and more rapid flights than any other bird whatever, and departs farthest from land, though it is reported it cannot support itself on the surface of the water. It owes its name to the rapidity of its flight, and is sometimes seen at the distance of 300 leagues from land. Its feet are a little palmated, and furnished with long sharp claws: its wings are large, and measure about nine feet from tip to tip, and seem quite motionless when it is in the air. From the ease with which it flies, and the great length of its wings, it is enabled to support itself a long time; and to avoid the difficulty of rising from the ground, it always seeks an elevation, or lights upon trees. It is about the size of a hen, and the neck and head are in proportion; the beak is long and thick, and the upper part arched; the plumage about the shoulders and wings is of a darkish colour; that of the hen is grey. The cock has a red crest like the turkey, which hangs half way down its neck, and the tail is forked. It always makes use of its beak and talons to take the flying fish and others which follow the gilt-head. It pounces with great rapidity in pursuit of its prey, skims above the surface of the water with great ease, and strikes with such dexterity, that it never misses its aim. It pursues other sea-fowls for the sake of the fish which it takes out of their bellies. Father Lobat says, that its flesh is rank; it is very nourishing, and tastes something like the water-hen. Its grease, applied as an ointment, alleviates rheumatic pains. As it always follows ships, the appearance of this bird is looked upon as a certain sign that some vessel is at no great distance. There is a small island not far from Guadaloupe, called the island of Fragatas, from the great numbers which resort thither to pass the night and to build their nests. This is not now very frequent; the diminution of their species is owing to the great quantities that have been killed for the sake of their grease. The hunters strike them on the head with thick sticks, and they fall stunned to the ground. Two or three fishes of the size of herrings have been taken half digested out of their stomachs.

[*Franc-aleu.*—In Canada, is a freehold estate, held subject to no seigniorial rights or duties; acknowledging no lord but the king.]

[*Fray.*—The title given to friars in naming them; as Fray Juan, Brother John.]

Fraylecillo. (*Euphorbiæ species.*)—A plant with long narrow leaves, which makes an excellent salad. It is generally said, that if any person wishes a purge, he must strip from the bottom of the stem, as many leaves as he would wish evacuations; if he should wish a vomit, he must observe the same method, but the leaves near the top of the stem must be chosen. Father Gumilla has ascribed to this plant the same singular effect in his Orinoco.

Fraylejon.—A plant in the province of ancient Guaca, in the kingdom of Quito, which burns those who tread on it with their bare feet. It is about the size and shape of a white friar; the leaves are long, broad, lanuginous, and very hot; the flower is very beautiful, of a yellow colour, but has a nauseous smell. The resin of this plant has the property of relaxing contracted nerves. The plant grows in cold mountains, amongst snow.

[*Frisadas.*—Coarse woollen manufactures of S. America.]

Fruta de Mono, or *Monkey's Fruit.*—A species of wild grape, which grows in Tierra Firme, upon a large bushy shrub, with small leaves. In shape and colour it very much resembles the sloe of St. John; its taste is acid, but very agreeable. The monkey prefers it to all other fruits; a circumstance which has given it the name of monkey's bread.

Fruta de Pava, or *Turkey's Fruit.*—A small fruit in Tierra Firme, resembling the orange-tree in its leaves, and on the seeds of which the bustards feed.

Fustan [or, more probably, Fustian.]—A white under petticoat worn by the ladies of Peru.

Fustete, or *Fustic*, (*Cotinus Coraria.*)—A small tree which grows in the island of Jamaica, St. Domingo, and some of the Antilles; it is also found in Italy and the *s.* provinces of France. The leaves are oval and round towards the extremities, the flower is of a dark green colour, and springs from the middle of a number of branching filaments. The wood is of a beautiful yellow colour curiously variegated, and much used by the workers in ebony. Before the bark is taken off, it gives a very good yellow dye, but it is not permanent. Tanners use the leaves for the same purpose.

G.

Gacha.—An earthen vessel used by some of the inhabitants of New Granada to boil and purify their salt.

Gallinaza.—A precious stone found in New Granada. It is a kind of basilites, and is probably the stone which, according to Fernandez, the inhabitants of New Spain call istle. It is of a dark colour, heavy, hard, and admits of a very fine polish. The Indians of Peru call it guanucuma culgui. *i. e.* the silver of the dead, because it is interred with the deceased. Great quantities have been dug out of their graves, which were in the form of a paten, some convex others concave, with a little hole through each by which they hung them round their necks. There is a mine of this kind of fossil in New Spain, and in the kingdom of Quito, near the settlement of Quinche. These plates are generally kept by naturalists, in their collections of curiosities. After mature deliberation, naturalists are inclined to think that this fossil is the vitrification of the burning mountains, and this conjecture appears well grounded, for it is as brittle as glass, and cannot be polished but by friction.

[*Gallinazo.* (*Vultur Aureum.*)—A fowl of the size of the Turkey hen, and very common in every part of America. The tip of the beak is black, and all the other part of an ash-colour. The plumage of the wing is brown, all the rest of the body black. The head is bare, and covered with a skin full of wrinkles. The iris and feet are brown, but it does not acquire these colours till a considerable time after it is hatched. Whilst it is very young it is entirely white. A considerable time after it has abandoned its nest a black spot like a mole rises betwixt its shoulders, which extends by degrees over every part of the body. Though it is very strong and powerful, and has the advantage of a crooked bill and very strong talons, yet it is never known to attack the smaller birds, but always feeds on carrion, reptiles, and the filth which it finds in the streets. On account of its stupidity and sluggishness, it has been called the feathered ass. It is no unsual sight to see it whole hours together entirely motionless upon the top of a tree, on a rock, or the roof of a house, with its wings displayed to the sun. When unmolested it is never heard to make any noise, but when pursued it flies from place to place, shrieking like a mouse, and vomits up all that it has eaten. To these peculiarities may likewise be added, that of emitting a most nauseous smell from every part of its body. The negligent construction of the nest, bespeaks the natural indolent disposition of the builder. All its artifice in building is reduced to heaping together a quantity of dry leaves and feathers, without any order or regularity, in a cliff or in the open field, on which it lays two, nearly white, eggs. The flight of this bird is heavy and slow, but, when it once rises, it goes so high that it is nearly lost to sight in the clouds. If it see a beast grazing which has a sore on its back it alights on it and begins to tear the flesh out of the wound. The hen, which in Tierra Firme is called noneia, differs from the cock in the diminutiveness of her body, the lightness of her colour, and the pale red of her crest. The organ of scent in this bird is said to be so acute that it can smell any thing at the distance of three leagues. In the kingdom of Chile they call it jote; in New Spain, sopilote. There is another species of this bird, called the king of the Gallenayos (*vultur papa*), which is very rare; the colour of the latter is a mixture of white, black, and grey. If this sees any thing dead, it observes it a long time from the top of some tree; nor dare the other birds come down in the presence of the king before he has eaten the eyes and heart of the dead animal, and returned to his former situation. As soon as he has retired, whole flocks descend from the neighbouring trees, and devour the prey in an instant.

Gamalota.—A herb greatly resembling the clover of Valencia, which the inhabitants of Tierra Firme give green to their horses and mules. The leaf is about a yard long and an inch broad, similar to the leaf of the Indian wheat. It bears some likeness to barley, but the leaves are something longer,

broader, and thicker, and of a very dark colour. The stem is strong, and the root of each leaf is about the thickness of two fingers. It grows to the height of two yards. When it happens to be covered by inundations it is then fit to eat, but as soon as the waters subside it returns to its arid state in a few hours. Don Antonio Ulloa has observed, that this plant is as advantageous to the cattle which feed on the plains, as it is pernicious to those which feed on the mountains.

[*Ganado Mayor.*—The Spanish term for the larger cattle; or, in English, black cattle.]

[*Garbanzos.*—A sort of peas used much in Spain and S. America, but whereof none in England.]

Garua.—A term in Peru, signifying small rain like the Scotch mist, from which they suffer no inconvenience.

Gegênes.—A little round fly, which, both from its biting and noise, is very molesting. It is very common throughout America, particularly in the hot countries and on the banks of the rivers.

[*Genepa, Sablier,* or *Sand Box-tree.*—Is a native of St. Domingo, its wood is thorny, it gives a good shade, and is used for hedges. The fruit resembles a perfect sand-box. The traveller is sometimes startled in riding under them, by a noise from the bursting of the fruit, which resembles the discharge of a pistol. The sap is of a singularly acrid nature, and caught in the eye produces blindness.]

Getudo, or *Patalo.*—A species of gilt-head of a very delicious taste, which abounds in the river Curica in New Granada, and great quantities are taken in the city of Carthage.

Gicama.—A root resembling the yuca, which grows in California, of which the Indians make bread.

Giguilite, or *Huiquilitl.*—A term which in New Spain is applied to the plant from which añil is extracted. See *Añil.*

Girasol, (*Solis Gemma.*)—A precious stone found in New Granada, partly transparent and partly opaque. It has a milky look, emits a weak lustre blended with blue and yellow, and it sometimes has the colour of the rainbow, or a gilt colour. When cut in the form of a sphere or semi-sphere, it reflects the rays of light every way, but not so well as the opal. It is as yet uncertain whether this stone be a species of the opal or caledonia. The most beautiful are of a milk-white colour shaded with blue and yellow beautifully intermixed. This stone, which is harder than the opal, is brought from the east, but those of a softer nature from the west. They are to be met with in the island of Cyprus, Galacia, Hungary, Bohemia, and in several parts of America. Sometimes they are found together, with the opal inclosed in another red, tender stone clouded with black. The name girasol was given to this stone by the Italians.

[*Glass-Snake.*—See *Serpents.*]

[*Gramina.*—The Latin term for grasses.]

Grana.—See *Cochinilla.*

Granadilla, (*Posseflora*).—A broad leaved plant which climbs up trees, and bears a fruit of about the size and shape of a lemon. The colour of the peel is a mixture of green and yellow. Under this is a white corrosive skin, and the inside is full of a delicious water, and small flat seeds covered with a sweet, delicate, fleshy substance. This is the fruit of the celebrated passion-flower, of which there are several species.

[*Grenadillos.*—See *Granadillos.*]

Guaba, (*Mimosa Inga.*)—A fruit contained in a seed-case, about half a yard long, three inches broad, and half an inch thick. When opened at one end with a knife, it discovers a kind of large almond about an inch long, placed in cartilagenous divisions, and covered with a white fibrous substance of a sweet taste, which very much resembles cotton. By pressing the pulp between the tongue and the roof of the mouth we easily find a brown smooth pip of an eliptical figure. There are two species of guabas; the one is called lanuginous, because it is covered with a soft down of an orange colour; the other is smooth, and less esteemed than the former. The tree which bears the guaba is very like the carobe tree.

Guacamayo, (*Psitacus Araracangua.*)—The beak of this bird is curved, and it moves the upper mandible. The nostrils are placed in the base of the bill, the tongue is fleshy and round, and the

feet are made in such a manner as to assist it in hopping. Naturalists enumerate 47 species of this bird, distinguished by the colour and length of their tails. They are all very beautifully adorned with very fine plumage. They are, however, very troublesome, for in their most silent fits they deafen all who are near them with their croaking. These birds are very common in every part of America.

Guacarito.—A fish which is very plentiful in the river Orinoco. The most striking circumstance in the character of the which is, that if it sees blood on any animal, it instantly surrounds the same in great numbers and devours it, leaving nothing but the bones. They do the same by men, and even assault the canoe in which he sails, if they happen to see a drop of blood any where about it.

Guachapeli.—A tree growing in the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, whose wood is very hard and solid. It is of a dark colour, and held in great estimation, and is preferred to all other wood for building ships, and is principally used for the keel and ribs, because it is incorruptible, proof against the ship-worm and easy to work.

Guacharaca.—A bird in the province of Guayana or New Andalucia.

Guadua.—A sort of cane, about 10 yards long, and half a span in diameter. The geniculi are about half a yard distant from each other. The inside is full of a delightful crystalline water, which is a refreshing draught in excessive heats for those who perform long voyages. It is very abundant in Guayaquil.

Guamache.—A wild fruit growing in the province of Guayana.

Guamanga.—The Guamanga stone is a concretion of water, near the city of Guamanga, from which it derives its name. It is as white as alabaster, and very transparent. Artists make of it statues, ornaments for houses, and church-windows, and apply it to several other purposes, from which they derive great profit.

[*Guana.*—See *Guanaco.*]

Guanabana, (*Annona Muricata.*)—A fruit of the size of a melon, whose peel is of the consistence of a dried orange, of a deep green colour, and covered with dark specks. The pulp consists of several slices about an inch long, the substance of which resembles that of the orange, but is as white as snow, and very sweet. Each slice has a stone of a brilliant dark colour, which resembles the sloe, but has no point.

[*Guanaco,* or *Huanaco.*—See *Alpaca.*]

[*Guapata.*—The small insect, so called by the Spaniards, but by the Indians, peche, which penetrates into the skin, and occasions a very smart pain.]

Guarango.—A sort of timber used for ship-building in the harbours of Guayaquil.

Guarapo.—A beverage used throughout the kingdom of Tierra Firme and in several other countries, where it is the usual drink of the Negroes and of the lower class of people. It is made of the juice of the sweet cane put into water and left to ferment. The consumption of this drink is as great as that of the pulque in New Spain. When very strong it is capable of producing intoxication. Sometimes it is made of maize, and is the same with that used in Peru.

[*Guare.*—A kind of rudder used in the boats which navigate the river Guayaquil. It is composed of boards three or four yards long and half a yard broad, which they let down and draw up vertically at the poop and by the prow, to the number of four, five, or six, according to the direction they would give the vessel.

[*Guava.*—See *Guayala.*]

Guayaba, (*Psidium Pyriferum*).—A fruit which grows in great abundance in every part of America. As a plant springs up wherever a seed is dropped, the country is overrun with trees of this kind. This fruit very much resembles the rennet-apple, excepting that it has a little crown. The rind is rough and uneven, the pulp consistent, like that of the pear, full of seed, and the taste is a mixture of sweet and sour, but very agreeable. The tree is of a common size, blooms twice a year, like the orange, and has an odoriferous smell. It is an astringent, and the decoction of the seeds is given to those who labour under diarrhœas and bloody fluxes. There are two kinds which differ from each other in the colour of the pulp, the one being red, the other white.

Guayacan. (*Guayacanium Officinale.*)—A genus of the class decandria monogynia. The calyx consists of five unequal segments, the petalæ are inserted in the calyx, the capsulæ are angular, and have from three to five cellulæ. There are three species of guayacan, all peculiar to America. The wood is very ponderous, and the texture solid and compact; the outside is yellow, but the heart is green variegated with black, pale green, and a dark colour. The bark is thin, smooth, and of a grey colour, and has, as well as the wood, a bitter pungent aromatic taste. Frequent experience has proved, that, after mercury, this is the best remedy for all venereal complaints, providing the disease be not inveterate, but it must be taken with the greatest precaution, and for the space of 40 days. The patient must take it in doses at the rate of one pound per diem, using for his ordinary drink a weaker potion of the same decoction. It has been used with wonderful success by those who have been afflicted with the rheumatism, gout, and paralytic distempers. Physicians recommend it as a cure for chronical distempers of the skin, and in obstructions; it helps asthmas, and cures the whites in women. It must be observed that the guayacan on all occasions is preferable to bark or sarsaparilla. When it is prepared in doses, each one ought not to have less than a half, nor more than a whole scruple, but it is usually taken in decoctions. Three ounces of the residue of the wood, is adequate to six pounds of water. When thus mixed, it must stand 24 hours to steep, and must afterwards be boiled till half the water is consumed. In venereal distempers, a double quantity of the substance must be added to the same quantity of water. The bark of the tree possesses the same virtues in a less degree. Apothecaries have a resin, by some improperly called the gum of guayaco; this gum is extracted from the wood, by means of spirits of wine, or from an incision made in the tree. This gum is said to possess the same virtues as the tree; it may be taken from eight grains to a scruple in each dose, dissolved in brandy; it is an effectual remedy against the gout, but if it be very strong it laxes the bowels too much. Another decoction is prepared for scorbutic distempers in the mouth, inflammations in the almonds, or tonsils, and the parts contiguous to the gloths. The celebrated oil of guayacan is also extracted from the same tree by distillation; it is an excellent remedy for the tooth-ach, applied exteriorly; is a wonderful cure for malignant ulcers, and immediately checks the cariosity of bones. Boerhave and Fernel have bestowed the highest encomiums on the guayacan, and say it will perfect a cure which mercury cannot effect.

[*Guayaco.*—See *Guayacan.*]

Guayzale.—The tulcan is so called in Tierra Firme. See *Tulcan.*

Guembe.—A kind of fruit in the province of Gaira, in the government of Paraguay. This fruit is of an oblong figure, pointed at the extremities, and full of small yellow seeds, which when sucked are sweet, but if burst with the teeth, they fill the mouth with an insupportable acid juice. The plant which produces it is a kind of reed which adheres to the trees, and climbs to a great height. The natives of the countries where it grows, say, that if the seed falls on any rotten bark, it immediately strikes root, and produces plants of the same species.

Guepil.—A cotton vest used by the natives of New Spain; there is also a considerable manufacture of it in Villalta.

Guineo. (*Musæ Species.*)—The least and most delicate species of plantain. It is about five inches high, and an inch and a half in diameter; the peel is smoother, and more yellow than that of the others; the fruit is extremely hot and prejudical if liquor be taken after it; the bunches are of an incredible length. This plant abounds in every part of America.

H.

Habillas.—The timber of Guayana.

Hacana.—A hard ponderous wood in the island of St. Domingo.

Hacer las once.—An expression which arose from a prevalent custom in the warmer parts of America, of offering rosolio to visitors, when they are grown languid with heat and perspiration; in the same manner as they take the refresca in the evening.

[*Hacienda.*—An estate.]

[*Hagua.*—A pulse found in some parts of S. America.]

Hamaca.—A sort of swinging bed, first used by the Indians and afterwards adopted by the inhabi-

tants of America, particularly to take the siesta, or nap after dinner. It generally consists of a piece of strong cotton, six or seven feet broad and twelve long. At each end the warp is very strong, and unwoven for the length of about two feet; through these ends of the warp, well twisted and doubled, a cord passes, and keeps the hammock suspended at both ends to two trees; or if within doors, to beams or nails fixed in the wall for that purpose. These beds are very useful and convenient, being removed from place to place with very little trouble. It is very cool to sleep on, and the vibration of the air, which is caused by the constant motion of the bed, affords a continual refreshing breeze; and as neither linen nor mattresses are used, there is little danger of being troubled with bugs. The people of Tierra Firme make the hammock of the threads of the pita; the threads are interwoven with dyed straw, and worked in the manner of a net, to make it the more cool. In Darien and Quito the Indians make them of cotton. They are sometimes used for travelling, carried on the shoulders of two Indians; for this purpose they put two poles lengthways through the folding of the warp at each corner, and to the poles are fixed others transversely, and the person is shaded from the sun by a curtain in the form of a canopy.

[*Hare.*—Of this animal there are two kinds, which appear to be different species; the one is commonly called the white rabbit, or coney; the other simply the rabbit; but from the proportional length of their hinder legs, and other specific marks, they both belong to the family of the hare. The former has a covering of coarse white hair, which comes on before winter, and falls off the ensuing spring. He is about half the size of a large European hare, and twice as large as the other kind. The latter burrows in the ground like a rabbit. They are both found in the same tract of country, but have not been known to associate. The former is found in the N. States, and appears to be the same as the hare of the N. part of Europe; the latter is found in all the States, and is probably a species peculiar to America.]

Hayo.—Cacoa is so called in Santa Martha and New Granada. See *Coco.*

[*Hermano Mayor.*—First brother.]

Hicacos. (*Crysobalanus Hicaco*), or *Giacos.*—A fruit about the size of a walnut, having also its coat divided into small superficies; some are a mixture of white and brown, others are entirely white. The pulp is of the same colour as the rind, and of the same consistency as the blancmanger, but very insipid and unsavoury, and is covered with a thin skin. It grows on low bushy shrubs. The hicacos is only used in making sweetmeats, and for this purpose is sometimes transported from Havannah to Europe.

[*Hidalgo*, or *Hijo dalgo.*—The son of something, properly a gentleman.]

[*Higuano.*—See *Higueron.*]

Higuerilla. (*Riccinus minor et major.*)—A plant which resembles the fig-tree, but is somewhat less. The foliage differs in very few respects from that of the fig. It produces a fruit covered with a thick rough husk, and a kind of small, glossy, striped almonds. When prepared, they are harmless and solutive, but unprepared, they are very dangerous, and an infallible poison to dogs.

Higueron. (*Ficus radicans.*)—A very hard wood, much used in the dock-yards of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, for building vessels.

Hilo de Caracol.—A cotton thread manufactured in Guyaquil, and in the province of Veragua in Tierra Firme, and several other parts. It is of a lively permanent purple colour, without undergoing any operation in the dye, except that it is dipped in a liquor which is the spontaneous emission of a periwinkle, which the natives of those countries find in their respective strands. The thread is afterwards manufactured into cloths of different kinds, which are held in great esteem, as they never lose their colour in the wash. This testaceous animal is, without doubt, the murex of the antients.

[*Hippopotamus.*—That this animal ever existed in America was not supposed till a few years ago. The ingenious Dr. Mitchell says, " That in the year 1788, some teeth were dug up in Long Island, which, from their shape, size, and consistence, beyond a doubt, belong to the hippopotamus. They agree exactly with those of the same animal, which are to be seen in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, and in the Leverian Collection at London. They moreover correspond, precisely, with the plate and description of that animal's skull and jaws, as given by Dr. Grew, in Museo Regalis Societatis;

and printed at London in folio, 1681. He is, therefore, worthy of a place in our history as well as the mammoth."]

Huaca.—The interment of the Indians in their state of barbarity: they heaped up a great mound of earth in the shape of a cone, and placed the dead body within in a sitting posture, with all his riches about him. After the conquest, the Spaniards began to covet the riches that were buried in these mounds, and opened them. The Indians, in order to deceive them, made frequent mounds of the like nature, without putting into them either gold or silver. Finding themselves thus deceived and impoverished, with pulling down the empty mounds, the Spaniards were compelled to abandon their pursuit. Some, however, were so fortunate as to enrich themselves by this means.

Huaipurú.—A wild fruit of Santa Cruz, in the sierra of Peru. Contrary to all others, this fruit is attached to the trunk of the tree, instead of the branches. In colour, shape, and taste, it resembles the European cherry. It is the usual aliment of birds and monkeys, and is seldom applied to any other purpose.

Huanaco.—See *Alpaca.*

Huano.—It was the prevalent opinion that huano was nothing but the dung of a bird, called huanal, and bred in the small islands situated in the S. Sea, on the coasts of Peru, and that it was incredibly multiplied; but naturalists have incontestibly proved, that it is fossil earth. In the province and corregidorship of Costa it is used to fertilize the land. One handful of this earth, strewed about the roots of a plant of Indian wheat, makes it grow with such vigour, that it produces 200 fold. In this manner an incredible quantity of this fossil is consumed. The province of Chancay alone draws from these islands annually 90,000 bushels of huano, and others consume as much in proportion.

Huembe.—A very strong kind of willow, growing in the province of Santa Cruz de la Sierra. It is very serviceable to hang the bells of churches, and in other cases where great strength is required.

I.

Icotéa.—A quadruped with short legs and flat feet, resembling the tortoise. The shell is arched like the lid of a trunk, is very thin and transparent, and is very beautifully inlaid. The flesh is esculent and delicious, and the eggs are likewise very good meat. They may be kept in the shops alive a long time after they are caught. It usually resides in woods under ground, and feeds on leaves.

Ichu.—A sort of grass growing in Peru, and a new genus amongst botanists. It is used in the mines instead of wood, to separate the mercury from the metals, and is very serviceable to the natives.

Iguana. (*Lacerta Iguana.*)—An amphibious animal of the lizard species. It is about a yard long, of a green colour, diversified with specks of various colours. Like the caima, it is furnished with a row of sharp pricks on the loins. The flesh of the iguana is very sweet and savoury, differing little from chicken, but it is very hard to boil. It abounds in every part of America. When it finds itself closely pursued, it betakes itself to the water, and runs with astonishing velocity. The female lays a great number of eggs, about the size of a walnut, the whole of which is yelk, covered with a membrane instead of a shell. These eggs, when cooked, are as palatable as those of a hen. In some of these animals there is found a stone of the size of a small turkey's egg; this stone is of a pale ash-colour, bordering on white, and is composed of different coats or laminæ, like an onion. Reduced to a powder and taken in warm water, it is a most efficacious remedy for the stone. The common people usually eat the eggs of the iguana dried in the sun.

[*Inca.*—The antient emperor of the native Indians of Mexico and Peru.]

Intiyuyu.—A large and formidable snake in the country of the Amazonas.

Invernadero.—The chains of mountains and elevated situations in the province of Guayaquil are called invernaderos, where they feed their cattle, whilst the low lands and summer pastures are inundated.

Ipecacuana. (*Viola Ipecacuana.*)—A root about the thickness of a quill, well known in Europe for its emetic virtues. There are two species, distinguished by the colour, both of which are indigenous to America. The one which is grey, is of the best quality, and grows in Peru; the other is dark, and

grows in Brasil. Some have imagined, without any foundation, that they are two distinct species. Its efficacy in curing is very surprising; its emetic virtues are owing to the resin which it contains; it is taken in doses from 12 to 30 grains each, in broth, water, wine, or preserves. In Spain it is improperly called bejuquillo, or epecacuanha.

[*Iron-wood*, or *Break-axe.* (*Quiebra Hachra.*)—A tree of St. Domingo, a species of lignum vitæ. It has the singular property of becoming petrified when stuck in the damp ground.]

Itil.—A tree which resembles the apple-tree, and grows in the province of Luya in Peru. If a person pass near this tree, he immediately finds himself begin to bloat and swell. The effluvia which it emits, has such an effect on the blood, that it renders necessary the application of caustics. Not only men, but also animals of every description fly from the itil.

J.

[*Jagua.*—A tree of the island of St. Domingo, which produces a delicate fruit whose juice is clear as water, yet the stain on linen is of an indelible jet, and serves for dye or marking. The tree is tall and straight, the wood firm, but supple.]

Jalapa. (*Mirabilis Jalapa.*)—Of the genus and class pentandria monogynia; the corolla is in the shape of a funnel, and the calyx is placed below the fruit, and the nectarine is globular, including the germ. There are three sorts of this root, all peculiar to America. Tournefort and Linnæus are of opinion that this jalapa is the same with that of the apothecaries, but Houston says it is a species of the convolvulous root. Its figure is oblong, in the shape of a Spanish turnip. It is solid, heavy, and cut transversely, almost black within and brown without, resinous, hard to masticate, and acid to the taste. It contains a great deal of pungent salt, with a mixture of acidity, instead of earth and brimstone; it is a good cathartic, especially for the Negroes. Though at the present day, the jalapa is propagated in every part of America, yet it originally came from the city of Xalapa, from which it derived its name.

Jenjibre. (*Amomum Xinxiber.*)—A plant growing about three feet high; the leaves are long and pointed; the root smooth, broad, and branching out into various figures. The peel is thin, flesh-coloured before it is cut, and when dry, grey. There are small fibres arising from the bottom of the plant, which extend in every direction throughout the whole, like veins in the human body. These veins are impregnated with a very pungent juice, much stronger than any other part of the plant, yet much sweeter before it is arrived at maturity. The jenjibre, when cut green, makes excellent preserves. Taken whilst tender, it helps digestion, clears the stomach of phlegm, promotes evacuations, creates appetite, instigates urine, and gives a delightful flavour to food of every description. But as it is an active stimulant, it must be used very sparingly.

Jeniquen.—A shrub in the kingdom of Chile, which resembles hemp, and is used for the same purpose. It is manufactured and sent in considerable quantities to Guayaquil, to rig those vessels which are fitted out in that harbour, and to lay in reserve for others. It is probably the same with that which the English have discovered in Botany Bay.

Jicarazo.—An expression which signifies the same as to present a person with a cup of chocolate; it is very common in Guatemala.

Jobo. (*Spondias Mombin.*)—A fruit which the Indians call marapa. It has a very strong smell, and is yellow both within and without, and in point of shape and size, may be compared with the plum of St. John. Its taste is sweet, with a mixture of sourness. The Indians lay up stores of this fruit for their ordinary food. When it is pressed, it stands sometime to acquire acidity. The bark of the tree, in decoction, is an astringent, and an excellent lotion for cleansing and healing inveterate wounds.

[*Joint-snake.*—See *Serpents.*]

Jugano.—A hard, durable timber, much used in the dock-yards of Guayaquil for ship building.

Julepe.—The Europeans have given this name to the Indian fig; which when ripe is sweet, and has a very delicious taste.

K.

[*Kincajou.*—This animal is frequently confounded with the carcajou, though he resembles him in nothing but the name. He belongs to the family of cats; at least he very much resembles them. He is about as large as a common cat, and is better formed for agility and speed, than for strength. His tail gradually tapers to the end, and is as long as his whole body. His colour is yellow. Between him and the fox there is perpetual war. He hunts in the same manner as do other animals of that class; but being able to suspend himself by twining the end of his tail round the limb of a tree, or the like, he can pursue his prey where other cats cannot; and when he attacks a large animal, his tail enables him to secure his hold till he can open the blood vessels of the neck. In some parts of Canada these animals are very numerous, and make great havoc among the deer, and do not spare even the neat cattle. But we have heard of none in these States, except a few in the *n.* parts of New Hampshire.

L.

Labadero.—A method of separating the gold from the earth, pursued by those who are unable to defray the expenses of excavation. They gather sand from the rivers and rivulets, or earth impregnated with marcasite or pyrites of gold, which is put into a horn vessel, and immersed in the current of a rivulet, where it is continually agitated, till all the earth be carried away by the stream, and the marcasite remains in the bottom of the vessel. After this operation the gold pyrites is almost pure, having only a small mixture of ferruginous sand: it is afterwards put into a large wooden trough, which swims in a vat of water, and agitated till all the ferruginous earth is washed out, and the gold remains in particles, of different shapes and sizes, at the bottom. The earth thus procured requires no farther preparation before it is put into the crucible.

[*Lacertæ.* (*Lizards.*)—Of these there are many species. The alligator, or American crocodile, is a very large, ugly, terrible creature, of prodigious strength, activity, and swiftness in the water. They are from 12 to 23 feet in length; their bodies are as large as that of a horse, and are covered with horny plates or scales, said to be impenetrable to a rifle ball, except about their heads and just behind their fore legs, where they are vulnerable; in shape they resemble the lizard. The head of a full-grown alligator is about three feet long, and the mouth opens nearly the same length; the eyes are comparatively small, and the whole head in the water appears, at a distance, like a piece of rotten, floating wood; the upper jaw only moves, and this they raise so as to form a right angle with the lower one. They open their mouths while they lie basking in the sun, on the banks of rivers and creeks, and when filled with flies, musketoes, and other insects, they suddenly let fall their upper jaw, with surprising noise, and thus secure their prey. They have two large, strong, conical tusks, as white as ivory, which are not covered with any skin or lips, and which give the animal a frightful appearance. In the spring, which is their season for breeding, they make a most hideous and terrifying roar, resembling the sound of distant thunder. The alligator is an oviparous animal; their nests, which are commonly built on the margin of some creek or river, at the distance of 15 or 20 yards from the water, are in the form of an obtuse cone, about four feet high, and four or five in diameter at their basis. They are constructed with a sort of mortar, made of a mixture of mud, grass, and herbage; first, they lay a floor of this composition, on which they deposit a layer of eggs, and upon this a stratum of their mortar, seven or eight inches thick, and then another layer of eggs; and in this manner, one stratum upon another, nearly to the top of the nest. They lay from one to 200 eggs in a nest; these are hatched, it is supposed, by the heat of the sun, assisted, perhaps, by the fermentation of the vegetable mortar in which they are deposited. The female, it is said, carefully watches her own nest of eggs till they are all hatched; she then takes her brood under her care, and leads them about the shores like as a hen does her chickens, and is equally courageous in defending them in time of danger. When she lies basking upon warm banks with her brood around her, the young ones may be heard whining and barking like young puppies. The old feed on the young alligators, till they get so large as that they cannot make a prey of them; so that, happily, but few of a brood survive the age of a year. They are fond of the flesh of dogs and hogs, which they devour whenever they have an opportunity: their principal food is fish. In Carolina and Georgia they retire into their dens, which they form by burrowing far under ground, commencing under water and working upwards, and there remain in a torpid state

during the winter. Further *s.*, in warmer climates, they are more numerous, and more fierce and ravenous, and will boldly attack a man. In S. America, the carrion vulture is the instrument of Providence to destroy multitudes of young alligators, which would otherwise render the country uninhabitable.

Besides the alligator, they have of this species of amphibious reptiles, the brown lizard (Lacerta punctata.)—Swift (Lacerta fusciata.)—Green lizard, or little green cameleon of Carolina, about six or seven inches long; it has a large red gill under its throat, and, like the cameleon, has the faculty of changing its colour.—The striped lizard or scorpion.—Blue-bellied, squamous lizards, several varieties.—Large copper-coloured lizard.—Swift, slender, blue lizard, with a long slender tail, as brittle as that of the glass snake. The two last are rarely seen, but are sometimes found about old log buildings in the S. States.]

[*Lamprey.*—The lamprey frequents most of the rivers in the New England States, N. America, especially where the passage is not interrupted by dams. That part of the lamprey which is below the air holes is salted and dried for food. After the spawning season is over, and the young fry have gone down to the sea, the old fishes attach themselves to the roots and limbs of trees, which have fallen or run into the water, and there perish. A mortification begins at the tail, and proceeds upwards to the vital part. Fish of this kind have been found at Plymouth, in New Hampshire, in different stages of putrefaction. (Belknap's History of New Hampshire, vol. iii. p. 176.)]

Lanudo.—A term expressive of rusticity, usually applied, at Carthagena, to the inland Creoles who visit that port on commercial business.

Lapa.—An amphibious animal, in the province of Guayana, called by the Indians timenú. It is about the size of a common dog, with red hair diversified with white spots; it makes a noise like the large Brasilian rabbit; the flesh is very tender, and resembles that of a sucking pig. It lives on the banks of rivers and lakes, where it feeds on herbs and fruits; and betakes itself to the water, to hide in its caverns, on the least noise.

Latino.—A tall bulky tree, which grows in the island of Granada, one of the Antilles. Instead of branches, it is covered with large leaves like fans, which serve instead of tiles to cover the houses.

[*Lavaderos.*—Washing-places, where they separate the metallic particles from the earthen, or, as it is called in Brasil, cascalhao, and in Spanish America, cascalote. Sometimes spelt *Labadero* ; which see.]

Leche Miel.—The fruit of a tree, which grows in the district of Santiago de las Atalayas, in the jurisdiction of San Juan de los Llanos, in the New Kingdom of Grenada. It is of the size and shape of a large grape, divided in the middle by a thin pellicle, one side of which is filled with a liquid like milk, and the other with a very delicious honey-like substance.

Lengua de Vaca. (Rumiscis species.)—A plant, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, with long broad leaves, of the size and shape of a cow's tongue, whence it has derived its name. It is of a clear green colour, hairy on the under side; it is usually steeped in water, to communicate to it a diuretic and stomachic virtue; it has a saccharine taste.

Leño Blanco. (Begnonia Leucoxylum.)—A large tree, whose wood is white, much used by the English in ship-building, on account of its excellent property of not being subject to the destructive effects of the wood-louse.

Leño Jabon.—See *Palo Manteca.*

Leon Marino. (Phoca Leonina.)—The body is more active, beautiful, and better shaped than the other phocæ, though of a roundish form, and covered with a dark brown hair; its back, from the shoulders to the tail, is very short; the neck and head are long, like those of the goat; its mane is very conspicuous, and gives it something of the outward appearance of the African lion, and an exclusive right to be called the lion-marino, or sea-lion. The name which Admiral Anson gave it, and which Linnæus afterwards adopted, is certainly very improper. The Indian natives of Chile, being unacquainted with the lion, gave it the name of thopel-lame, or the hairy-lame. It also bears a striking resemblance to the African lion, in the shape of its head and in the nose, which is long and flat, and bare from half the length to the end; the ears, which are nearly circular, arise about seven or eight lines above the cranium; their eyes are lively and pleasant, and the pupils are of a

lively, bright, green colour; the upper lip is adorned with long white whiskers, resembling those of the tiger, and all the other species of phocæ; the mouth, which is very wide, is furnished with 34 teeth, as white as ivory, very large and solid, which are nearly hidden in the gums; the incisors are four inches long, and about 18 lines in diameter; the grinders do not project like those of the lama, and the distribution of the teeth differs in no respect from those of the uriñes; the hind feet are webbed, and have the same shape and number of toes as the last-mentioned; the fore feet are webbed, short in comparison with the bulk of the body, divided near the extremity into five toes, which are furnished with nails, and united by a membrane like those of the phoca elephantina; lastly, the tail is black and round, and is little more than a hand in length. The female is much less than the male, and devoid of the mane, like the lioness; she likewise resembles the latter in having two dugs, and brings forth one young one at each birth, which she suckles with affection. Some say these animals are 25 feet in length; they are very fat and full of blood, and as soon as they perceive themselves wounded, they betake themselves to the water, leaving behind them, on the surface, large streams of blood which are seen at a distance, and serve as a mark to direct the lamas and uriñas to pursue and destroy them, which seldom happens to the latter in like circumstances.

Lere.—A name given by the natives of Darien, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, to their priests, who are held in the greatest veneration by those barbarians; they persuade the people that they enjoy familiar conversation with the devil, and impose upon them a thousand such errors. The priests are painted with black and red, which gives them a most hideous appearance.

[*Libra.*—A Spanish pound, equal to 100 pounds English.]

Lico.—This name is applied to soda or barilla, in the province of Saña in Peru, where it is found in great abundance.

Lignum Vitæ. (Thuya Bom.)—Or tree of life, which grows in the island of Jamaica, and is comprehended in the class monœcia monadelphia: neither gender have the corolla. There are three species of this tree, all suited to hot climates. It came originally from Canada; is of a moderate height; the trunk very hard, knotty, and covered with a dark red bark; the branches spread out like wings, and the leaves, which resemble those of the cypress, only appear on the young branches, laid over each other like scales united by flat stalks. In the beginning of spring it produces flowers, male and female, on the same stem; the fruit is long, or a kind of long cone, composed of scales. The leaves have a bitter taste, and, when passed through the hand, exhale a strong resinous odour. The wood, though not the hardest, is incorruptible; and, for this reason, is much used in Canada for palisadoes: when it is worked it emits an offensive smell. It has obtained the name of lignum vitæ, or tree of life, because it is always green. There are three species; one of which is found in China.

Liguira.—A small square cloth, which the Indian women, of the New Kingdom of Grenada, wore on their shoulders during their state of paganism.

Limeta.—A synonymous term with bottle, used in many parts of America.

Limpia Ojos.—A small stone, shaped like a lentil, found in the sand on the shore of the island of Dominica, one of the Antilles. It is put under the eyelid, and, by the motion of the eye, goes round the ball, extracting any body or matter which it may contain, and afterwards comes out of its own accord. It may, perhaps, be the lapis lenticularis which naturalists esteem.

Limpion.—A small roll of tobacco leaves, and a piece of wood, four inches long and one in diameter, covered with silver, gold, or silken thread, and sometimes with small pearls, which ladies have constantly in their mouths, to cleanse and preserve their teeth.

Linches.—A name given, in the province of Guayaquil and kingdom of Quito, to a sort of wallet, or saddle-bags, made, in the district of Puerto Viejo, of the fibres which are drawn from the stalks of the maguey.

Liquid ambar. (Liquid ambar stiracifluum.)—A plant and species of the class monœcia polyandria. The cup consists of four leaves, without a corolla, and having a great number of fibres. The male is also formed of four leaves, in a globular shape, likewise destitute of a corolla; but the styles are united, and the pods are very numerous, with a double valve, and contain a great number of seeds: there are two species, both natives of America. From the tree is extracted a fragrant gum, which bears the

name of the tree, greatly esteemed as a remedy for obstructions, and may be had at the shops of chemists and druggists.

Liron Aquatil. (Didelphis Murena.)—An amphibious quadruped, which inhabits rivers and declivities; it is small, very beautiful, and resembles, in shape, the dormouse; it is covered with a very smooth hair of extraordinary beauty, of a black and white colour, arranged in such a manner as to form alternate waves of either from the head to the tail; the head resembles that of the dormouse, with whiskers like a cat; the feet are membraneous, and the tail is entirely void of hair from the middle to the end. The greatest singularity respecting this animal is, that its belly is divided into two skins, which it opens and shuts at pleasure, like a doublet, pressing the sides together with such force, that the juncture is scarcely perceptible. These two skins are lined, interiorly, with a soft and almost imperceptible fur. Within these skins the female carries six young ones, attached to the umbilical gut and to a small twisted nipple, which each young one holds in its mouth, from its first formation till it is brought to light. Hence if you catch a female 15 or 20 days gone with young, on opening the belly, you may discover the six young of the size of small mice, in the surprising and unnatural state in which they are engendered and supported, which is so singular as to cause universal admiration. In the province of Venezuela it is called the little water dog.

[*Lisa*, or *Liza*.—The skate fish.]

Listadillo.—A sort of cotton manufacture, with black and white stripes, which is very common in America, and chiefly used for clothing by the indigent and slaves.

Llaccho.—A sort of strong high grass, growing on the banks of the rivers and lakes in the province of Chucuito, in the kingdom of Peru, which affords very good pasture for cattle.

Llama.—A species of camel in the kingdom of Peru. See *Alpaca.*

[*Llanos.*—Plains in S. America, many of which form the tract of country called *llanura.*]

[*Llanuras.*—In S. America, are bare level tracts of country, sometimes many leagues in extent.]

Lliclla.—A sort of very fine woollen cloth, manufactured in several provinces of Peru, particularly in Parinacochas, and worn by the Indian women on their shoulders.

Lobo Marino. (Phoca Lupina.)—And, in the language of Chile, uriñe, differs very little from the phoca, or sea-calf in Europe. No fixed rule can be given for their size or colour; for they are found from three to eight feet in length, some of a brown, others of a grey, and others of a whitish colour. The body, which is very large towards the head, diminishes gradually, like that of a fish, to the hind feet, which constitutes the extremity of the body, and are united in one hard skin, covered with two different sorts of hair, the one soft and short, like that of an ox, the other somewhat longer and more stiff; the head is large, and of a roundish shape like that of a dog, whose ears have been cut close to its head, and the defect of the ears is supplied by two holes in the side of the head, which serve as conductors to the organ of hearing; its eyes are very large, of a spherical form, and adorned with eyebrows and a few eye-lashes; the nose greatly resembles that of a calf; the snout long and obtuse, with large whiskers on the upper side; the lips of an equal length, but the upper one something split, like that of the lion; the mouth is well set with 34 teeth, that is to say, 10 incisors, six above and four below, four canine teeth and 20 grinders, all of which are remarkable for being hollow in the part which enters the gum, and are only solid at the point of the tooth which is in the mouth; the tongue resembles that of the calf; the two fore feet, which might more properly be called fins, have two visible joints, the artoides, or joint of the shoulder with the shoulder blade, and that of the elbow with the metacarpus. The bones in the metacarpus and those of the toes are cartilaginous, and are inserted, as it were, in a glove of a very strong, hard membrane, serving the purpose of hands, or fore feet. These feet consist of four toes, covered in the manner already mentioned, and constitute the principal distinction between the uriña and the other species of phocæ; the body, as has already been mentioned, diminishes gradually towards the extremity, is divided into two very short parts, which are the hind legs. The joints of these are also visible, and the feet consist of five toes of unequal lengths, which differ very little from those of the fore feet. A rough membrane unites these toes from the first to the third joint, where it separates and surrounds the toes, going a little farther than the claws: betwixt these feet the tail is situated, and does not exceed three inches in length. The females bring forth in spring, generally, one or two at a time and very seldom three, are much better shaped than

the males, and have a longer and more graceful neck. Betwixt the skin and flesh of this, as well as most other aquatic animals, there is a soft fatty substance, very readily dissolved into oil; they are likewise very full of blood, and, when wounded, the quantity which issues is very great. Notwithstanding the disadvantageous construction of their feet, they climb with ease the highest coasts, and seem to take a singular gratification in basking upon them; but on land their progressive motion is attended with such difficulty, that they seem rather to creep than walk. However, any person who might approach too near one of them, would be in very great danger of being severed in two at one bite, from the agility with which they bend their necks from one side to the other. When these animals see any person pass near them, they open their mouths wide enough to admit a ball a foot in diameter. In the sea they swim with an amazing velocity, using for this purpose their hind feet, which they extend longitudinally, and which seen at a distance have the appearance of a fish's tail. They are averse to remaining a long time under water, and frequently lift up their heads, as well for the sake of respiration as to see if there is within reach any penguin or other water fowl, of which they are extremely fond. The large uriñes make a noise like the bellowing of a bull, the small ones sometimes bleat like lambs, and sometimes roar like calves. They are found in great abundance on all the S. Sea coasts, and the natives of Chile destroy every year a great number; they kill them by a blow on the snout, which is the most tender part. The skin is applied to various purposes, but is more particularly used in making a kind of boat, in which they pass rivers, and fish in the sea, which consists of two large balloons of this skin, eight or ten feet long, well pitched and full of air, and fastened to two or three strong pieces of wood. When well tanned, it has a small grain, like Morocco leather, so that it makes very good boots and shoes, which are water proof if properly tanned. The oil which is extracted from this animal by the natives of the Archipelago of Chiloe, and by them exposed to sale in different cities, is very good, if properly cleaned, for tanning and for the lamp; is preferable to whale oil, because it always remains clear, and is sometimes used by sailors in preparing their victuals. There are sometimes found in their bellies stones of two or three pounds weight, which they swallow to assist digestion.

[*Lods et Ventes.*—In Canada, are fines of alienation, being one-twelfth part of the purchase-money.]

Loro. (*Psitacus.*)—A bird of the pie kind, somewhat less than a hen; the bill is curved, the upper mandible loose, and the apertures of the nostrils are placed in the base of the bill; the tongue is fleshy and black; the feet consist of three toes, armed with claws, and placed two before and one behind; the colour of the body is a very beautiful green, and the neck is of a very fine yellow. There are nine species of loros, distinguished by the different colours of their plumage. They can pronounce, very clearly, any words which they are taught. They are very common in every part of America.

Lucma.—A very large tree, with a round fruit, four or five inches in diameter; the pulp is mealy, dry, and not very sweet, with a yellow rind, and large, round, bright seeds.

Lucuma. (*Achras Mammosa.*)—A plant of the class icosandria dyginia. There are five species, distinguished by their respective peculiarities, which are all trees of a moderate size, covered with leaves which are always green, much resembling those of the laurel, and producing flowers of a woolly nature. The fruit is about the size of the melocoton, covered with a yellow skin, which contains a pulp of a whitish colour and sweet taste, with one or two small stones. Of the five species, two only are cultivated, the lucuma bifera and the lucuma turbinata; the former bears fruit twice in the year, that is to say, in the beginning of summer and in autumn; but those which bear in autumn, alone have stones, which are always two in number, and very much like the chesnut. The shape of these is round, and something sloping, differing in this particular from those of the turbinata, which are shaped like a top. Though these fruits obtain perfect maturity on the trees, yet it is necessary to keep them for some time in straw in order that they may lose a certain sourness natural to them, and acquire that agreeable taste and odour for which they are so well known. The other species, which are wild, are called in the kingdom of Chile by the names of bellota, keule, and chañar. The first, called also lucuma valparadisia, because it particularly abounds in the vicinity of Valparadiso, differs from the others in no respect, except that the leaves are opposite; the fruit is round, oval, or long, and generally has a very bitter taste; the keule grows above 100 feet high, and the leaves are oval, six or seven inches long, and of a brilliant green colour; the fruit is round, of a beautiful yellow colour, and as they are very large and numerous, they give an additional beauty to the verdure of the tree. Lastly, the

chañar lucuma espinesa, whose trunk is about 30 feet high, beset with thorny branches, and leaves of nearly an oval shape, without any stalk. The fruit is round, like that of the keule, soft, and of a very agreeable taste; and the wood of the tree is solid and yellow, and in great esteem amongst cabinet-makers.

[*Lynx.*—Of the lynx there are three kinds, each probably forming a distinct species. The first, (lupus cervarius, Linn. 3d edit.) is called by the French and English Americans, loup cervier. He is from two and a half to three feet in length; his tail is about five inches; his hair is long, of a light-grey colour, forming, in some places, small, irregular, dark shades; the end of his tail is black; his fur is fine and thick. He is the lynx of Siberia, and some of the *n.* parts of Europe. A few may be found in the *n. e.* parts of the district of Main; but in the higher latitudes they are more numerous.

The second, (catus cervarius, Linn.) is called by the French Americans, chat cervier; and in New England, the wild cat. He is considerably less than the former, or the loup cervier; he is from two to two and a half feet long; his tail is proportionably shorter, about three inches long, and wants the tuft of black hair on the end of it; his hair is shorter, particularly on his legs and feet; is of a darker colour, brown, dark sallow, and grey, variously intermixed; his fur is said to be of a very different quality; his ears are shorter, and he has very little of the pencil of black hairs on the tips of them, which is so remarkable in the former kind. This animal destroyed many of the cattle of the first settlers of New England.

The third species is about the size of a common cat: the colour of the male is a bright brown, or bay, with black spots on his legs; his tail is about four inches long, and encircled by eight white rings; the female is of a reddish grey. Found in the Middle and S. States.]

M.

Macagua.—A venomous serpent, in the province of Guayana, or New Andalucia.

Macana.—A sort of weapon used by the Indians, particularly the Caribees; it is a club of very heavy wood, two feet and a half in length, smooth, and about two inches thick, except at the handle, which is somewhat thinner. As they keep the edges or corners very sharp, a blow from one of these clubs is so terrible, that it will take off an arm or separate the head from the shoulders. The Indians manage this weapon with great dexterity. The tree of which the macana is made is as hard as iron, and is called by the same name as the club.

Machete.—A hunter's cutlass, or a sword half a yard long, four inches broad, and half an inch thick at the back, used by the Indians in cutting branches, opening roads, and for several other purposes.

Macnu.—The cochineal is called by this name in Peru.

Macúquina.—Silver: the small reals and half reals of silver and reals de vellon, not stamped round the edges, which are current in commerce, with a trifling loss on account of the facility of coining them.

Madi. (*Madia Gen. Nov. Mol.*)—A plant in the kingdom of Chile, from whose seed they extract a kind of very good eating oil. There are two species, the madi proper, which is cultivated, and the wild madiviloum, or melosa. The shoots of the first are hairy, bushy, and five feet high; the leaves grow three together, and are covered with a sort of wool, they are about four inches long and six lines broad, of a clear green colour, resembling in shape those of the bay-rose; the flowers are striped with yellow, and the seed is inclosed in a pod of nearly a spherical figure, eight or ten lines in diameter; the seed is convex on one side, it is about four or five lines in length, and are covered with a thin dark-grey pellicle. The cultivators extract from this seed, by expression or decoction, an oil of an agreeable taste, clear, similar in colour to the oil of olives, and by Father Fevillee preferred to all other kinds of oil. The wild madi differs from the last in no respect except that the leaves stick to the tree, and are so glutinous, that they seem besmeared with honey.

[*Maestre de Campo.*—A military rank corresponding, at the present day, to that of Colonel.]

[*Mages.*—See *Maguei.*]

[*Magistral.*—Master.]

[*Magistral Colegial.*—Principal of the College.]

[*Magnificat.*—The canticle of the Blessed Virgin.]

Maguei. (*Agave Americana.*)—A plant which is very abundant in every part of America, and at the same time the most useful and most esteemed by the Indians, because it supplies them with water, wine, vinegar, oil, balsam, honey, beams for building houses, tiles, thread for sewing and weaving, needles, and with its shoots for victuals. This plant may be classed with the aloes. The leaves, when half roasted, afford a quantity of liquor something sweet, which when boiled to a syrup is an excellent remedy for cleansing old wounds. It may also be taken in the quantity of half or a whole drachm, in warm water, to dislodge any crudity from the stomach, and to expel bile or extravacated blood. This plant thrives in any part, and is therefore so abundant; but the principal use to which it is applied, besides those already enumerated, is in making a sort of liquor called pulque, of which we shall give an account under its name.

[*Magueges.*—See *Maguei.*]

[*Mahogany*, or *Swietenia.*—Generally classed with the decandria, is a tall, straight, beautiful tree, with flowers of a reddish or saffron colour, the fruit oval, of the size of a lemon, and resembling galls, but of no use. The tree, when grown in a barren soil, is hard, of a close grain, and more finely variegated than when it proceeds from low damp lands; it is then more porous, pale, and open grained.]

Maiten. (*Maitenus Boaria.*)—A tree of the class dycandria monogynia, very large, beautiful, and ever green, and grows spontaneously in every part of the kingdom of Chile; the body of the tree is seldom more than 30 feet high, but the numerous branches which it shoots out, eight or ten yards from the top, form a most beautiful bower; the leaves, sometimes opposite and sometimes alternate, are denticulated and pointed at both extremities, very thick, of a brilliant green colour, and about two inches long; the flowers are monopetalous, companiform, and of a purple colour, but so small, that at a short distance they are not discernible. These flowers cover all the young branches, and give place to a capsule, which contains a black seed. The wood of the maiten is hard, and of an orange colour, with red and green veins. Black cattle are so partial to the leaves of this tree, that they leave every other sort of pasture when they find one, and were it not for the fences and ditches with which these trees are enclosed by the gentry, the species would long ago have become extinct. The maiten is a most effective antidote against the lithy.

Maiz, or *Indian Wheat.* (*Zea Mayzyum.*)—A genus of the monœcia triandrya. The cup of the male consists of a double skin without any cover, and the same may be said of the corolla, each consisting of two valves; the style is filiform and pendulous, and the seeds are arranged singly in an oblong case. This plant is one single stalk, which shoots out leaves more than a yard in length, and three inches in breadth, and the fruit is a sort of cone about a span in length, set very closely with grains, which are frequently of different colours: the general colours are white and yellow. They reckon five species, or rather varieties of maiz, which differ very little from each other. The method of sowing it, is to make a hole, throw in a few seeds, and cover them, and without any further trouble, it soon appears above ground, and is fit for reaping at the end of five months at latest; hence they easily obtain two crops in one year. The wheat is made into flower, and serves for bread for all the Indians and common people; and on this account the consumption is very great in America. It is also used in the composition of several dishes, and to feed cattle, pigs, domestic animals, and poultry. Some think the maiz came originally from Asia, and that the Spaniards carried it to America; but this is false, for it is evidently a native of the New World.

Malagueta.—See *Pimienta de Tabasco.*

Mamei. (*Mammea Americana.*)—A fragrant and delicious fruit, whose pulp is of the consistency and colour of the melocoton; the rind is fibrous and flexible, and about two lines in thickness. In preserves, this fruit is a great delicacy. It generally contains one or two rough seeds, as large as the kidneys of a sheep. The tree bears a near resemblance to the laurel.

Mamon.—A fruit growing on a large, beautiful, evergreen tree; it is of the size and shape of a small cherry, and when divested of the skin, which is green and hard, the inside appears of a white colour, watery, and similar in taste to the muscadine grape.

[*Mammoth.*—This name has been given to an unknown animal, whose bones are found in the *n.* parts of both the old and new world. From the form of their teeth, they are supposed to have been carnivorous. Like the elephant they were armed with tusks of ivory ; but they obviously differed from the elephant in size; their bones prove them to have been five or six times as large. These enormous bones are found in several parts of N. America, particularly about the salt licks or springs, near the Ohio river. These licks were formerly frequented by a vast number of graminivorous animals, on account of the salt, of which they are excessively fond. From the appearance of these bones, some of which are entirely above ground, others wholly buried, it is probable that the animals died at different periods, some perhaps as lately as the first settlement of this country by the Europeans.

Mr. Jefferson informs us, that a late Governor of Virginia, having asked some delegates of the Delawares what they knew or had heard respecting this animal, the chief speaker immediately put himself into an oratorial attitude, and with a pomp suited to the supposed elevation of his subject, informed him that it was a tradition handed down from their fathers, "That in ancient times a herd of them came to the Big-bone licks, and began an universal destruction of the bears, deer, elks, buffaloes, and other animals which had been created for the use of the Indians: that the Great Man above, looking down and seeing this, was so enraged that he seized his lightning, descended to the earth, seated himself upon a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, on which his seat and the print of his feet are still to be seen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were slaughtered, except the big bull, who, presenting his forehead to the shafts, shook them off as they fell; but at length missing one, it wounded him in the side, whereon, springing round, he bounded over the Ohio, the Wabash, the Illinois, and, finally, over the great lakes, where he is living at this day."]

Manares.—A name given to a kind of sieves of superior quality, made of palm, in the town of Casanare, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Granada.

Manati, or *Sea Cow.* (*Trichecus Manatis.*)—A large amphibious animal, which seems to correspond with quadrupeds by the junction of the fore feet at the breast, and with the cetaceous as being destitute of hind legs and feet, and has only in place of these a very large tail, which it spreads like a fan horizontally ; the head is larger than that of an ox, the eyes small, and is without an iris, and the holes which conduct to the organs of hearing only a line in diameter; it has no teeth in front, but a hard callous substance which serves to cut the grass, and 32 grinders ; it is also destitute of a tongue ; it has two fins placed near the head ; the skin is an inch thick, and is covered with hair of an ash colour. Their size is various, some have been seen 30 feet long ; the hind part of the body is more slender than the fore part, and always tapers off towards the tail. The female has two dugs, and generally brings forth one at each birth, which she carries in her arms and suckles during a year. This animal is of a very quiet disposition : it goes up the rivers swimming on the surface of the water, and pastures along the banks without going on land. When the Indians wish to kill one, they approach as near as they can, and strike it with a harpoon tied to a long rope, to which they fasten a piece of cork, to serve as a buoy, and when the manati has lost much blood and exhausted its strength, it returns to land; they then fold up the rope within a few fathoms and draw it out by degrees, or kill it in the water with their lances. The usual weight is from five to 800 pounds. The flesh is very good, and when fresh, has more the taste of veal than of fish, and is still more esteemed when dried or pickled ; the fat is as sweet as butter, and the skin is made into thongs, shoes, whips, and sticks. It is fonder of living in fresh water than in the sea, and for this reason they are very abundant in the river Marañon, and those which flow into it, in the Orinoco, on the coasts of Guayana, and in several other places. Though deformed in their outward appearance, they are well organized interiorly ; and we may hence judge, that both from their natural dispositions and their own customs, they have some sociable qualities. They are not daunted at the appearance of a man ; on the contrary, they endeavour to approach and follow him with security and confidence, and this instinct in them is far superior to that in any other animal. They always swim in large bodies, strongly attached to each other. The young ones are placed in the middle, to be free from danger, and if they are attacked they assist each other ; and there have been instances in which they attempted to draw the harpoon out of the one which had been struck, and of the young following the mother to the banks of the river, where they are ensnared by the fishermen. They are as faithful in their love as they are in society, the male having only one female, whom he constantly attends both before and after copulation, which takes place in the water,

as they never come on land. There are four or five different species, which are distinguished by few particularities: but, in all, the parts of generation resemble the human more than those of any other animal.

[*Manchineel.*—A tree of the Island of St. Domingo, which affords a wood of a beautiful appearance for furniture, shaded like marble with green and yellow veins; but in consequence of its containing a kind of white acrid juice, with which the Indians used to poison their arrows, it is dangerous to cut it down, or saw it into planks, for the smallest particle of wet, dust, or juice falling into the eye, produces inflammation, which often ends in blindness. The fruit, resembling an apple, is poisonous, and the antidote is salt, to which even cattle have been noticed to recur from instinct.]

Mandioca.—See *Yuca.*

Mangle. (*Rhicophoria Mangle.*)—A tall, bulky tree, which grows spontaneously near the sea-coast; the wood is very strong and straight, and for this reason is much used in building houses, particularly for beams and pillows. Lemori says there are three species: the first called cereiba, which is the white mangle, something like the sauce or willow. The leaves of this species are opposed, and have a shining appearance in the sun, being covered with a very white salt, formed by the sea vapours, dried by the heat of the sun, and easily dissolved in rain; the flower is yellow, and smells like honey. The second species is called cereibuna: it is a small tree with a round thick leaf, of a beautiful green; the flower is white; and the fruit about the size of a hazel nut, and very bitter. The third species, which the Indians call guapareiba, and the Portuguese mangue verdadero, or real mangue, is the black mangle, a much larger and more bushy tree than the former, about 25 feet high, and 20 inches in diameter; the bark is of a dark-grey colour. The manner in which this tree grows is very astonishing: from the branches, which are flexible, high, and long, there issue small bunches of filaments, which reach the ground, spread, and strike, and in a short time become as large as the tree from which they proceeded; in this manner they encrease in such a degree, that whole woods spring from a single tree; and Frazer, in the account of his voyage, says, that in the Island of Cayenne, the creeks are grown over with mangles, and that the oysters adhere to the trunks and to the branches which hang downward and are covered by the tide, and there breed. The wood of the mangle is solid, heavy, and has very long, close grains, and is used in making boats; the leaves resemble those of the pear-tree; the flowers are small, and are succeeded by berries similar in outward appearance to those of the cassia. These berries are filled with a pulp like marrow, of a bitter taste: some Indians eat it, when they cannot procure better food. The root is soft, and is used by fishermen to cure the bites of venomous animals. These trees are so thick and their roots so interwoven, that in many places you may walk 20 leagues without touching the ground. The roots are a great hindrance to fishermens' boats, and afford a safe asylum to fish.

Mani. (*Arrachis Hypogea.*)—And in the language of Quechua, *Inchic*, is a frondiferous plant with white flowers; the fruit consists of several long, round pods, fastened to the roots under ground. The seeds of this plant are something opened at the ends, and covered with a thin, reddish pellicle, easily taken off by fire or hot water, like almonds. It bears a near resemblance to the best almonds, is very agreeable to the taste, and very useful in many cases, particularly if eaten roasted. Mr. de la Condamine always carried some in his pockets. In New Spain it is called cacahuate.

[*Manioc Root.*—The manioc root, to which the Brazilians are indebted for the chief part of their subsistence, is a shrub which abounds every where, and is termed by the natives *maniiba*, and the root *mandioka* (*Jathropha maninot*, L.) It rises to the height of about seven feet, and from its knotted stem proceed branches, producing smaller stalks, which bear clusters, resembling stars, of small green oblong leaves, pointed at the apex. The flowers are of a pale yellow colour, and the root is of the shape of a parsnip.]

Manta. (*Squalus squatina.*)—A fish found in the S. Sea, and particularly abundant in the district of Puerto Viejo, in the province of Guayaquil and kingdom of Quito, and on this account gives name to the Port of Manta. It is very large, resembling the sole, and the body is surrounded with a membrane of an oblong figure, three or four yards long and two broad, and nearly a hand in thickness. With this skin it seizes a man, of whom it is the mortal enemy, and squeezes him till he is drowned. For this reason the divers carry with them a knife with two edges, and as soon as they perceive the fish begin to cover them, before they press them tight, they take the knife and cut all round. From

its shape and the particular circumstance of wrapping men up in its fin, it has obtained the name of manta, or blanket. It may, perhaps, be the same with the angelote, or angel-fish, in Europe.

Manzanillo. (*Hippomane Mancinella.*)—A tree, very like the apple-tree, whose fruit is also similar, though something less, and so extremely poisonous, that if any one inadvertently eats of it, he instantly swells and dies. Nor does a less terrible fate await him who has lain some time under its shade, the effluvia being extremely prejudicial. It is very common in every part of America, particularly in the hot parts and sea-ports; and in the port of Havannah, in the Island of Cuba, they know from experience, that whoever eats a fish which has eaten any of the fruit of this tree, immediately becomes mad, or as they say, is seized with the jaundice; and the fruit they call zigucato, or jaundice. The Caribee Indians poison their arrows with the juice of this tree.

Mapanáe.—A poisonous serpent, in the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito.

Mapula.—A precious stone, found in a mine in the province of Anserma, in the kingdom of Granada.

Mapuriti. (*Vivera Putorius.*)—A small quadruped, in the province of Guayana, of the shape of a cur-dog, coloured with black and white. Father Gumilla, in his Orinoco Illustrado, says, that it defends itself from those who wish to catch it by emitting a vapour, which is so suffocating that it deprives its pursuer of his senses. But his information could not have been correct, for wherever it goes it leaves behind an insupportable stench, and if any one approach, it discharges a yellow liquor, pungent, like pimiento, in the same manner as milk flies from a woman's breast when hard pressed. This liquor comes from a small glandulous tube, situated in the upper part of the anus, which it swells, keeping the tail erect, over its back, as long as the person who wishes to molest it is present. The flesh is very good and tender, but the stinking gland must be cut out as soon as it is killed, or otherwise the whole body becomes tainted with a bad smell.

Maqui.—A tree, in the kingdom of Chile, similar in every respect to the sanguno.

Marañon. (*Anacardium Occidentale.*)—A tree very common in every part of America, which produces the fruit called by the same name; it is nearly of the size of the apple-tree; the leaves round, five inches long and three broad, with a very short stalk, smooth on both sides, stiff, like parchment, of a bright green colour, with fibres running parallel to each other. The tree grows to such a size, that furniture is sometimes made of it; the fruit is oblong, covered with a thin, smooth skin, of a yellow colour, striped with red; the pulp is fibrous, very acid, and is not masticated, but extracted by suction, because when the juice has been extracted, the remainder looks like tow; the stone is in the shape of a kidney, of a lead colour, and about as large as half a chesnut, and is united to the fruit at the part where the fruit joins the branch; the kernel, contained within the rind, which is about a line in thickness, is covered with a thin pellicle, and resembles the chesnut both in taste and colour. When prepared by the confectioner, like almonds, it is excellent; nor are the sweet-meats made of the fruit less agreeable to the taste. The tree distils a clear, transparent, solid gum, like gum-arabic, but more soluble. In Guayana, it is called mercy, and by the French acajore.

[*Margay.*—This animal very much resembles the European wild cat, both in form and size; his colour is like that of some of our tabby cats, having dark waving streaks, on a sallow ground. Found in the S. States of America.]

Maria.—A tree, whose wood is very heavy and in great request, particularly in the province of Guayana, where they use it for masts, top-masts, and yards for the vessels which they build in the dock-yards in that country. It is of the same colour, but much stronger and better than the north pine. This tree grows to such a wonderful size, that without penetrating the interior parts of the woods, some have been cut, in the above-mentioned province, 108 geometrical feet long. The gum of this tree, known by the name of oil of Maria, bears a high reputation in medicine for fortifying the stomach.

[*Mariscal de Campo.*—Major-General.]

Mark.—(Spanish) is eight ounces.

Marquesote.—A name given in New Spain to the sugar of roses.

[*Martin.*—This animal is called the martin (marte) by M. de Buffon. In England, the pine-martin, fir-martin, yellow-breasted martin, pine-weasel, and yellow-breasted weasel. In New England the sable; and by the Indians, Wauppanaugh. He is formed like the weasel; is generally about 16 inches long, and is of a sallow colour; but his size, and the shades of his colour, vary in different parts of the country. Some have spots of yellow on the breast, others of white, and others have none. He keeps in forests, chiefly on trees, and lives by hunting. He is found in the N. States of America.]

Mata-palo, (*Clutia.*)—A tree which in the beginning is only a shrub or twig, always growing near some other tree, round which it entwines, and by its malignant influence deprives it of all its sap, and prevents it from receiving any more from the earth, and in time dries it up however strong it may have been; whilst itself continues to increase till it becomes a large tree. Some are 20 geometrical feet in circumference, and are made into canoes. This tree, in Guayaquil, distils a kind of gum, possessing great virtues for healing ruptures. There are five species of mata-palos, which bear a near resemblance to each other.

Mata-sarno.—A large tree growing in the province of Guayaquil in the kingdom of Quito, whose wood is highly valued in ship-building. It has obtained this name from the experienced virtue which it possesses in decoction for curing the itch.

Maté.—A kind of drink taken in Peru, like tea, at all hours of the day. It is made by putting a handful of the herb paraguay, and a small quantity of sugar into a pumpkin of the size of a moderate cup, edged with silver or gold, with handles of the same metal, and flattened at the edges: a red-hot coal is put into the cup to burn the herb, during which it is covered with a linen cloth. They then put in hot water, and without any further preparation begin to drink it. The instrument used for this purpose is a small pipe, which they call bombilla, made of silver or gold as thick as a common quill, terminating in the shape of an almond, full of small perforations, like a pouncet-box, to prevent the herb from rising. This herb is a good stomachic, and is taken to excess in Peru, there being no house, either rich or poor, where the maté is not constantly upon the table. Nor is it less astonishing to behold the luxury displayed by ladies in their utensils for drinking the maté. The word maté is taken from the small cup in which it is made.

Matlazahua.—A disease, or epidemic, peculiar to New Spain. It is a kind of pleurisy, and when prevalent commits great ravages amongst the Indians.

Maure.—See *Chumbe.*

Maya.—A very abundant fruit in the province of Guayana. The tree which produces it is a species of savila, but the leaves are much longer, and shaped like a broad-sword. Each branch produces one bunch, consisting of three or four dozen or more particles of fruit, in the shape of a hen's egg. The rind is yellow and rough, and the pulp white and sweet. It is eaten roasted or boiled, and is somewhat purgative. The Indians apply the name of this fruit to the pleiades, by which they direct their course during the night. This fruit lasts four or five months, during which time the Spaniards, as well as the Indians, use no other food. It is eaten roasted or boiled, because in a crude state it is apt to cause dysenteries.

[*Mayor.*—Head, principal, or chief.]

Mazata.—A sort of food used by the people of Darien in the kingdom of Tierra Firme. It is the plantain in its ripe state pounded and left to grow sour.

[*Mazizo.*—A metal so named by the Spaniards, in their mines in the province of Carangas, S. America.]

[*Mazo.*—The Spanish title for a bundle or roll of any indefinite length and size.]

Mechoacan, (*Convolvulus Mechoacan.*)—The root of a plant to which Hernandez gave the name of taquach, and says, erroneously, that it is a species of brionya. It derived its appellation from the name of the province in N. America where it was first discovered and preserved; but it has since been found in some parts of S. America, as Nicaragua, Quito, and Brazil. Its virtue in purging watery humours is very great, and for this reason is used in medicine for the dropsy, jaundice, and rheu-

matism. It is also good against an inveterate cough, the gout, and cholic, and is taken in powders from a scruple to a grain; or a double quantity if administered in an infusion of wine.

[*Medanos.*—Mountains of sand, found in S. America, particularly on the coast of Peru.]

Melers, (*Mirmecophaga Tridactyla.*)—A sort of bear, very improperly placed in the class in which it now stands. The Cumanagitos Indians call it guerichi; the Caribes, guariri; and in Yucatan, the less tamanoa, to distinguish it from the ant-eater, which it resembles in shape and disposition, except in the tail, that of the former being long and bushy. The tail, from the middle to the extremity, is entirely void of hair, and pliant like that of the monkey, and by it, like this animal, it frequently hangs on the trees to search with greater ease its food, which consists of wood-lice and other dirty insects; but its favourite food is honey, which it searches for in the cavities of trees with its tongue, which is similar to that of the ant-eater. It has on the fore feet four long, crooked claws, which are its principal defence against wild animals. It likewise differs from the ant-eater in its hair, which is shorter, more smooth, and of a brown colour. The flesh is eaten by the natives of Guayana.

[*Melocoton.*—The melocoton peach.]

Mennonistas.—A sect of heretics which had its rise in Holland, called by this name from Mennon, the founder, a native of Friezeland, who lived in the 16th century. These sectaries believe that the only rule of faith is the New Testament, that the terms Person and Trinity ought not to be used in speaking of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost; that the first man was not created just: that it is not lawful to take oaths, nor to carry on war, on any account; that infants are not the proper objects of baptism; and that the ministers of the gospel should receive no salary.

Merced.—The religious order of the Mercenarians, first instituted in Aragon by King James, for redemption of captives; who, like the Trinitarians, wear a white habit; but on their breast, as the others have the cross, so these wear an escutcheon with the arms of Aragon, and a white cross over them in a field *gules.*

Merei.—The Marañon is called by this name in the province of Guayana. See *Marañon.*

Mestizos, or *Mustees.*—The name of an indigenous cast of America, produced by the union of an Indian woman and European man, or *vice versa.* They began to exist at the entrance of the Spaniards, and have since that time encreased to such a degree, that they form, at the present day, a much more considerable part of the population than the Indians themselves, the diminution of the latter being thus very naturally accounted for. The Mestizos, or Mustees, are of a much clearer colour, and their skin and features resemble those of the European; but in contradistinction to these advantages which they possess above the Indians, they have other qualities and customs greatly to their discredit: they are for the most part given to litigation, robbery, sensuality, and inebriety, and are, moreover, addicted to the greatest cunning and meanness, but their abilities are great, and they have a disposition and facility to learn whatever they wish, and thus it is that, in all the towns of N. and S. America, they are found to be of the most ingenious and excellent of all artificers: also, in most of the commotions which have existed in the various provinces, it has been found that these people were the instigators, being themselves equally inimical as well to the Indians, as to the Spaniards, and all the other casts.

Metedor.—A term used in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, signifying a smuggler.

Mezcal.—A name given in the province of Cinaloa to the Maguey. See *Maguey.*

Mezquite.—A small species of wild carobe, whose proper name is mezquitl. It is a species of true acacia. The tree is prickly and the leaves are like small feathers. It produces a small fruit, of the kernel of which the Chichimecos Indians made bread. It grows in great abundance in temperate climates, particularly Cinaloa.

[*Mica.*—Muscovy grass.]

[*Minims.*—A religious order instituted by Francis de Paula.]

[*Mink.*—The mink, an animal about as large as a martin, and of the same form. The hair on its tail is shorter; its colour is generally black; some have a white spot under their throats; others have none. They burrow in the ground, and pursue their prey both in fresh and salt water. Those which frequent the salt water are of a larger size, lighter colour, and have inferior fur. They are found in considerable numbers, both in the S. and N. States of America.]

[*Mistoca.*—A fine sort of cochineal.]

[*Mistole.*—A tree found in S. America, not described by botanists.]

Mita.—A term in Peru, signifying the contribution of Indians for working the mines of Potosi and Guancabelica. The mita was instituted in the year 1575, by the Viceroy Don Francisco de Toledo, with the consent of the caiques of the different towns, to give employ to the Indians. The number was established at 12,900 men, 17 out of a hundred in the provinces nearest the mines, 16 from those not quite so near, and 14 from those at the greatest distance. This number was divided into three parts, which laboured alternately during a week each, only one body at the same time, so that the other two were always at liberty. From that time the number has been continually on the decrease, from the great diminution of the Indians.

Mitote.—A dance amongst the Indians of New Spain.

Mixe.—A sort of wild tobacco different from the species already known, which grows in the province of Villalta in New Spain.

Miztlapique.—A small delicious fish resmbling the gilt-head, about the length of a man's finger, and very abundant in the lake of Mexico.

[*Mocamuca.*—An animal found in S. America, not described by botanists.]

[*Moccassin*, Snake.—See *Serpents.*]

Mocoa.—The gum of a tree in the province of Mocoa in the kingdom of Quito, from which it derives its name. The Indians call it mopa-mopa, and of it make all sorts of varnishes, which are extremely beautiful, and so permanent that neither water will soften nor acids dissolve them. The manner in which they use it is to put a piece of the gum into the mouth, and when diluted they dip the pencil in it, after which they take the colour they wish to apply and lay it on, and it remains firm, lively, and glossy, like the Chinese maque. It possesses the singular property of not decaying, nor of contracting any humidity, even when water is applied to it. The furniture wrought and varnished in this manner, is conveyed by the Indians to Quito and other parts of the kingdom, and is held in great repute.

Mochilera, (*Didelphis Marsupialis.*)—A genus of quadrupeds, pertaining to the order of wild beasts, whose peculiarities are chiefly these: they have ten fore teeth in the upper mandible, and eight in the lower; the grinders are large, the tongue grained; and it has a pouch formed by a folding of the skin of the belly, in which it preserves its young, and opens and shuts at pleasure by means of the union of several muscles, and of two bones situated before the *pubis.* The interior of this pouch is filled with small glands containing a yellow substance, which gives the whole body a fetid smell, but when taken out and dried loses the nauseous odour and acquires that of musk. This animal is a native of S. America. It is said that the female brings forth five, six, or seven, at a birth, and that as soon as they are born she deposits them in her pouch, and continues to suckle them in it till they can walk. When the young are frightened, they instantly shut themselves in the pouch. The motion of this animal is so slow that a man may easily catch it without running; but they climb trees with great facility, and hide themselves in the leaves, or hang by the tail from the branches. Though it is a carnivorous animal it feeds on fruit, sugar-canes, and leaves. There are five species, which differ from each other merely in point of size; they are found in almost every part of America.

[*Mole.*—The purple mole is found in Virginia; the black mole in New England; he lives in and about the water: they differ from one another, and both from the European.]

Molle, (*Schinus Molle.*)—A tree of a moderate height, very bushy and corpulent, which thrives in an astonishing manner. It is of an agreeable light green colour; the leaf long, very narrow, and if the finger be applied will adhere to it, on account of the great quantity of balsam which it contains. The smell is pungent, and the fruit, which grows in large bunches, is round and red; but in its mature state black, and tastes like pimienta. The trunk of it emits some drops of gum or resin, and if an incision be made a greater quantity is produced. This gum is of a dark green colour, and is with difficulty consolidated. This tree was more esteemed by the Pagan Indians than any other, because it served as a remedy in divers complaints, particularly such as proceeded from colds. The fruit they applied to no other purpose than to give strength to their drinks. It is very common in high land, temperate, and cold climates, particularly in Ambato, Loxa, and Riobamba, in the king-

dom of Quito. Charles Clusius says, it is a species of mastich-tree, and gives it the epithet Peruvian, because it was brought from Peru, and has since been naturalized in Andalucia.

Moniato.—A root of which they make a kind of bread in the province of Carthagena, in the new kingdom of Granada.

[*Montaqui.*—A kind of pine found in S. America, the leaves of which are used for covering the houses of the poor, the shoots or buds for making an agreeable salad, and the heart, upon being reduced to a pulp, for bread.]

[*Moose.*—Of these animals there are two kinds, the black and the grey. The black are said to have been from eight to twelve feet high; at present they are very rarely seen. The grey moose are generally as tall as a horse, and some are much taller; both have spreading palmated horns, weighing from 30 to 40 pounds. These are shed annually, in the month of February. They never run, but trot with amazing speed. In summer they feed on wild grasses, and the leaves of the most mucilaginous shrubs. In winter they form herds; and when the snow falls, by moving constantly in a small circle, they tread the snow hard, and form what is called a pen. While the snow is deep and will not bear them, they are confined within this pen, and eat all the bark and twigs within their reach. They are considered as of the same species with the elk of the eastern continent. They are found in New England, N. America.]

Mopa-Mopa.—See *Mocoa.*

Moquingana.—A sort of honeycomb made by the bees in the district of Punta de Santa Helena, in the province of Guayaquil in the kingdom of Quito, where it hangs on the branches of the trees. The honey has a delicious taste, and they procure from it a great quantity of wax, which they purify.

Morado.—See *Nazareno.*

Moravitas, or *Moravians.*—A sect of Protestants established formerly in Hernhuth, a city in Germany, and afterwards in the English colonies, now United States of America, and in various parts of England, having obtained an act of parliament for that purpose. They have a kind of ecclesiastical government peculiar to themselves, and are generally known by the name of Society of Brothers. They profess the greatest veneration for our Saviour, whom they look upon as their head and director. They observe the most implicit obedience to the establishments of the church, and practise the most fraternal conduct towards each other.

[*Morciealago.*—A bat found in S. America.]

Moriche.—A sort of palm very common in the province of Guayana, and still more frequent in that of Barcelona. It is very much like the date-tree; but its principal distinguishing quality is, that each tree of this species has a beautiful crystalline stream of water, which forms a river where there are many. This arises from the attractive power of this tree, which sucks up and absorbs all humidity from the earth. In Quito it is called aguashi.

Morocoi.—See *Icotea.*

Moron.—A sort of wild noxious herb growing in the small islands called Alacranes in the Gulf of Mexico, where there are immense numbers of moles.

[*Morrocoyes.*—See *Icotea.*]

[*Morros.*—Mountains with round heads or tops.]

[*Morse*, or *Sea Cow*—More properly called the Sea Elephant, has two large ivory tusks, which shoot from the upper jaw: its head also is formed like that of the elephant, and would entirely resemble it in that part, if it had a trunk; but the morse is deprived of that instrument which serves the elephant in place of an arm and hand, and has real arms. These members, like those of the seal, are shut up within the skin, so that nothing appears outwardly but its hands and feet. Its body is long and tapering, thickest towards the neck; the toes and the hands or feet, are covered with a membrane, and terminated by short and sharp-pointed claws. Excepting the two great tusks, and the cutting teeth, the morse perfectly resembles the seal; it is only much larger and stronger, the morse being commonly from 12 to 16 feet in length, and eight or nine in circumference; whereas the largest seals are no more than seven or eight feet long. The morses and seals frequent the same places. They

have the same habits in every respect, except that there are fewer varieties of the morse than of the seal; they are likewise more attached to one particular climate, and are rarely found, except in the N. Seas.]

Mosquito de Gusano.—A species of gnat in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Granada, and several other parts of America. It is of a green colour, and when it bites it leaves behind it the seed of a small grub, which increases daily in magnitude. At first it is covered over with the skin, and causes very intense pain. It afterwards breaks out into a wound, and if not properly attended to ends in a gangrene, which puts an end to the existence of the unfortunate sufferer. This insect has been extended to several provinces in which it was not formerly found, by means of the cattle.

Motaqui.—A sort of palm-tree in Santa Cruz de la Sierra in Peru. The leaves are used by the poor people to cover their houses instead of tiles. The apple or fruit makes a very good salad, and from the inside they extract a flour of which they make sweet cakes to supply the want of bread. For this reason they hold in the highest esteem this plant, from which they derive such advantages.

Motete.—A name given to a sort of basket in Tierra Firme, resembling the cuevano of the Pasiegas, in the mountains of Burgos. It has two handles in which the arms are inserted, and serves for the conveyance of letters and other articles in narrow paths and rough roads in which it is impossible for a horse to go.

[*Mountain Cat*, (*Pardalis*, Linn. *Ocelot*, de Buffon.)—The length of his body is from 3½ to four feet; his tail about two feet. His colour is a sallow ground, with black spots and stripes. The male has a black list along his back, and is the most beautiful animal of the cat kind. He is exceedingly fierce, but will seldom attack a man. Found in the S. States.]

[*Mountain Crab.*—Respecting the mountain crab, which still survives in the larger of the W. India islands, though its final extinction is probably at hand, its history is so wonderful, that we choose rather to give it in the language of others, than in any recital of our own. The authors from whom we transcribe are Du Tertre and Brown; they both wrote from their own knowledge and personal observation, and the facts which they relate have been well corroborated by others. "These animals," says Du Tertre, "live not only in a kind of orderly society in their retreats in the mountains, but regularly, once a year, march down to the sea-side in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they choose the months of April or May to begin their expedition; and then sally out from the stumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers; there is no setting down one's foot without treading upon them. The sea is their place of destination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined precision. No geometrician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course; they neither turn to the right nor to the left whatever obstacles intervene; and even if they meet with a house, they will attempt to scale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But though this be the general order of their route, they, upon other occasions, are compelled to conform to the face of the country, and if it be intersected by rivers, they are seen to wind along the course of the stream. The procession sets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under the guidance of an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into battalions, of which the first consists of the strongest and boldest males, that, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greatest dangers. The night is their chief time of proceeding, but if it rains by day they do not fail to profit by the occasion, and they continue to move forward in their slow uniform manner. When the sun shines and is hot upon the surface of the ground, they make an universal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When they are terrified, they march back in a confused disorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they sometimes tear off a piece of the skin, and leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound.

"When, after a fatiguing march, and escaping a thousand dangers, for they are sometimes three months in getting to the shore, they have arrived at their destined port, they prepare to cast their spawn. For this purpose the crab has no sooner reached the shore, than it eagerly goes to the edge of the water, and lets the waves wash over its body two or three times to wash off the spawn. The

eggs are hatched under the sand; and soon after, millions at a time of the new-born crabs, are seen quitting the shore, and slowly travelling up to the mountains."

So far Du Tertre, as copied by Goldsmith. What follows is from Brown's History of Jamaica. "The old crabs having disburthened themselves (as above) generally regain their habitations in the mountains by the latter end of June. In August they begin to fatten, and prepare for moulting; filling up their burrows with dry grass, leaves, and abundance of other materials. When the proper period comes, each retires to his hole, shuts up the passage, and remains quite inactive until he gets rid of his old shell, and is fully provided with a new one. How long they continue in this state is uncertain, but the shell is first observed to burst at the back and the sides, to give a passage to the body, and the animal extracts its limbs from all the other parts gradually afterwards. At this time the flesh is in the richest state, and covered only with a tender membraneous skin, variegated with a multitude of reddish veins, but this hardens gradually, and soon becomes a perfect shell like the former. It is however remarkable that, during this change, there are some stony concretions always formed in the bag, which waste and dissolve as the creature forms and perfects its new crust."

To these full and particular accounts, Bryan Edwards adds, "that many people, in order to eat of this singular animal in the highest perfection, cause them to be dug out of the earth in the moulting state; but they are usually taken from the time they begin to move of themselves, till they reach the sea as already related." During all this time they are in spawn, and the same author, who had often tasted them, pronounces them one of the choicest morsels in nature. The observation therefore of Du Tertre, is neither hyperbolical, nor extravagant. Speaking of the various species of this animal, he terms them "a living and perpetual supply of manna in the wilderness; equalled only by the miraculous bounty of Providence to the children of Israel when wandering in the desert. They are a resource," continues he, "to which the Indians have at all times resort; for when all other provisions are scarce, this never fails them."

Moya.—An earthern vessel made in the new kingdom of Granada, for the purpose of boiling salt.

Muca-Muca.—The mochilera, or opossum, is called by this name in Peru. See *Mochilera.* They also give the same name to a species of laurel.

Mulato, or *Mulata.*—The offspring of a white man and black woman, or the reverse.

Mulita, or *Mulilla.* (*Dasyphus Undecimcinctus*).—A species of armadillo, something larger than the common one, with 11 bands and very long ears, from which it has obtained its name. See *Armadillo.*

Murtilla. (*Mirtus Baccifolia.*)—A shrub in the kingdom of Chile, three or four feet high, whose branches grow two by two and are opposed; the leaves are in the same order, and greatly resemble those of the myrtle of Trent. The flowers are white, and consist of five leaves. The cup is turned into the fruit, which is a berry about the size of a cherry, sometimes circular and sometimes oval, of a red colour, decorated with four green spots, like the pomegranate, and exhales a fragrant smell, which may be perceived at the distance of 200 paces. The seeds are of a brownish colour, and flat. The natives make of the berry an agreeable stomachic wine, which excites appetite, and is preferred by strangers to the most delicious muscadine wine. This liquor requires a long time to ferment; but as soon as it has settled it becomes clear and bright, and has a very agreeable smell, and is an excellent antiscorbutic.

[*Musquash*, or *Musk Rat.*—This animal is about 15 inches in length, and a foot in circumference. His tail is nearly a foot long, his hair very short; the colour on his back, dark; on his sides, generally reddish; his head and tail very much resemble those of a rat. He is furnished with glands, which separate a substance that has the smell of musk. In his mode of living, he is a distant imitator of the beaver; builds a rude cabin in shallow water, and feeds on vegetables; found in the N. and Middle States.]

[*Mustee.*—See *Meztizo.*]

Muzo.—A kind of wood of a very large tree in the new kingdom of Granada. It is spotted with red and black, very strong and pliable, and makes very beautiful furniture.

N.

Name, or *Iñame.*—A root found in every part of America, and eaten, roasted or boiled, by all classes of people. It grows in proportion to the goodness of the soil, which ought to be rich and good. The peel is thick, rough and uneven, covered with long hairs, and is of a purple colour, approaching to black. The pulp is about of the consistency of the sweet potatoe, of a dusky white, and sometimes flesh colour. It is easily boiled, is a light food of easy digestion, and at the same time very nutritive. It is eaten at table instead of the Cassavi bread, or boiled in water with salt and pepper. In planting it, they divide the head into four parts, which are planted at the distance of three or four feet from each other, and without any farther trouble they immediately take root, and in less than six months the fruit is ripe and ready for eating. The stem twines round other bodies and puts forth filaments with roots. If any tree or shrub grow near, it fastens on it and grows till it has entirely covered it. The leaves are thick and double, and by their withering give a sure indication that the fruit is ripe and at its full growth. As soon as the fruit is taken out of the earth, it is laid in the sun to dry, and kept for daily use.

In the Canary Islands and other parts, they apply the term ñame to the root arum colocassia, which we know by the name of Manta de Santa Maria.

[*Napolera.*—See *Nopal.*]

Naptha.—A mineral of a liquid consistency, clear, pellucid, of a strong scent, and very inflammable, and when pure, burns without leaving any residuum. It is found in large quantities on the surface of fountains, at the foot of some mountains in Persia, Tartary, and China; and if a light be applied to the surface of the water, it burns for a considerable time, emitting a very offensive smell. Genuine naphta is very scarce in Europe, and we are as yet ignorant whether it be found in any part of it, that which we have being counterfeit. In America it is found in the province of Piura in the kingdom of Peru. When distilled in the alembic it gives an oil, more liquid than the substance, and of a weaker smell. What remains after distillation is very much like amber, and Doctor Hill supposes it has the same principle. He also says, that with an acid extracted from crude marcasite, he has made of this fluid a pellucid and ductile substance, which had all the properties of amber, except consistency and brightness, which produced by distillation true salt and oil of amber. The medicinal virtues of naptha are the same as those of the common petroleum, but less active. The Persians use it both interiorly and exteriorly, taking a few drops for the colic; but its chief use is for the lamp.

Nazareno.—A tree whose wood is of a beautiful purple colour, with veins of different shades, of which writing-desks and other furniture of great value are made. It grows in several parts, as in Guayana in the new kingdom of Granada, and in the province of Moxos in the kingdom of Quito. In some places it is called Morado.

[*Neofite.*—Neophyte, or new convert.]

Nigua. (*Pulex penetrans.*)—A very small kind of flea, which easily penetrates the stockings, and introduces itself under the nails and into the joints and top of the toes. The pain which it causes on piercing the skin is like the bite of a common flea. As soon as it has fixed its situation it begins to corrode the flesh around it, and causes a slight itching. In this state it attains the size of a small pea and lays its eggs, which are so many other young niguas, which settle near the mother, and live in the same manner, increasing with such wonderful celerity that if care is not taken to pull them out, they corrupt all the flesh near them, and cause malignant ulcers and frequently gangrenes. When the bite of the nigua is felt, any bad effects may be easily prevented, by breaking the skin where the insect is situated, which is readily known by the colour; and gently removing the skin, it may be extracted with the point of a needle, putting a pinch of snuff or ashes out of a tobacco pipe into the wound. The greatest care is necessary to prevent any wet from entering the sore part, as it would infallibly occasion the spasm. The Negroes and other people of colour, who are very dirty, frequently lose the use of their feet for want of pulling these insects out at the proper time, and many have been obliged to submit to amputation of the leg. Pigs are also very subject to this disease, and their feet are always full of this insect. This insect in Peru is called pique.

Nispero. (*Achras Sapota.*)—A plant of the class hexandria. It is very frequent in America, and the fruit is one of the best which that country produces; it is of the size of an apple, and of an oval figure; the rind is brown and somewhat rough, and the pulp is white, very sweet, and resembles in

taste the bergamot pear, with only three long seeds. This fruit is so wholesome, that it is usually given to the sick to procure appetite. It is reckoned amongst the astringents. The tree is large and bushy, and bears fruit during the whole year. The wood is held in great esteem, and is of a tobacco colour, inclining to purple. It is capable of receiving a very good polish, and is so hard, that they usually make of it pegs to fasten boxes, instead of nails. It is also made into rulers for drawing lines and yard-wands. The leaves of the nispero are also astringent and detersive, and the decoction is given for inflammations in the throat. In New Spain they call this tree chico zapote.

Nonéca.—See *Gallinazo.*

[*Nopal.*—A sort of fig-tree, in the kingdom of Mexico.]

Nopo.—A name, in Peru, given to an European Spaniard.

Norbo. (*Passiflora punctata.*)—A flower very like the passionaria, or passion flower, but something less, and of a very fragrant smell.

O.

[*Oak.*—This tree, of N. America, though of the same species as that of England, differs in appearance, is not found so frequently as the mahogany, but is more lofty, though not so thick. It is, however, more solid, and better suited for rafters of buildings, mill timber, keels, &c. as it furnishes beams from 60 to 70 feet long. The hacana resembles the oak, but is preferable in many cases, from being less corruptible.]

Oaxáca.—Powders of, greatly esteemed for their fragrance and agreeable taste in chocolate. They are composed of cocoa, sugar, vayinilla, and cinnamon, of which the most considerable part is sugar, well pounded, and wrapped up in linen bags that they may not be scattered abroad. They have derived their name from the province where the aromatic composition is made.

Obraje.—A manufactory of coarse cloths, baize, and other woollen stuffs, instituted in several provinces in Peru. There were formerly establishments of the same nature in the kingdom of Quito, which had obtained such celebrity that the natives carried on a considerable trade, and supplied all S. America with these articles, but they were prohibited by a royal decree in the ministry of the Marquis de la Sanora.

Oca. (*Oxalis Oca.*)—A moderate sized plant, resembling the acetous trefoil. It produces, at the roots, a yellow fruit, with several very brilliant eyes, five or six inches long, very sweet, with a peculiar taste, similar to the chesnut; it is eaten fresh or dried, either raw or boiled; it is peculiar to cold climates, and requires cultivation; it is sometimes preserved like the sweet potatoe of Malago, and is reckoned a great delicacy.

Ocote.—A tree in New Spain, similar to the pine; the leaves resemble those of the cedar; the tree exudes a great quantity of gum or resin, and the Indians use the branches for torches. There are woods of this tree, which are called ocatales.

[*Ocre Almagre.*—Bitter ocre, an earth of a rough and naturally dusty surface, composed of fine and soft argillaceous particles, slightly coherent in its texture, and readily diffusible in water.]

[*Oidor.*—Judge.]

[*Oidor Decano.*—Ecclesiastical Judge.]

Oleacazán.—A plant, very common in the territory of New Spain, and likewise found in some other parts, greatly celebrated for its virtues in restoring lost strength, and a sure specific against all sorts of venom, by applying the leaves to the wounded part; the effects are known from the leaves adhering, or refusing to adhere, to the skin of their own accord.

Omanto.—A fish found in the lake of Chucuito, in the kingdom of Peru.

[*Opernus.*—A species of bees, without stings, so named in S. America.]

[*Opossum.*—This animal is about a foot and a half long, has a long pointed nose, furnished with long stiff hairs; ears thin and naked; tail naked, nearly as long as the body, and capable of holding the animal suspended; legs short; feet small and naked; he uses his fore paws like a monkey; his body is well covered with a woolly fur, white at the roots, and black at the ends; his hair is long, thin, and

coarse; its colour black and white, forming a grey of various shades, and these different shades are often so intermixed as to give a spotted or variegated appearance; but the most singular part of this animal is a kind of false belly or pouch, with which the female is furnished; it is formed by a duplicature of the skin; is so placed as to include her teats, and has an aperture which she can open and shut at pleasure. She brings forth her young from four to six at a time, while they are not bigger than a bean; incloses them in this pouch, and they, from a principle of instinct, affix themselves to her teats; here they remain and are nourished till they are able to run about, and are afterwards taken in occasionally, particularly in time of danger. The opossum feeds on vegetables, particularly fruit; he likewise kills poultry, sucks their blood, and eats their eggs: his fat is used instead of lard or butter. Found in the S. and Middle Sates.]

Organo.—A singing bird, in the province of Moxos, in the kingdom of Quito, which has obtained this name from the accuracy with which it imitates the organ.

[*Oropimente, Orpimente.*—A foliaceous fossil, of a fine and pure texture, remarkably heavy, of a bright and beautiful yellow colour, like gold.]

Oso Hormiguero. (*Myrmecophaga manibus Dydactilis.*)—A quadruped, peculiar to S. America. There are three species, singular for their shape and manner of living, subsisting entirely on ants; the snout is long; the mouth narrow, and destitute of teeth; the tongue is long, circular, sheathed in the snout like a tuck in a cane; it has the power of shooting out its tongue and thrusts it into ant-holes, and as soon as it is covered, draws it into its mouth and swallows. The Brazilians call the first species the large tamandua; the second, tamandua; and the third, which is the least, hormiguero, or ant-eater, to distinguish it from the other species. This last is not more than six or seven inches long from the extremity of the snout to the tip of the tail; the head is two inches long, and becoming gradually slender towards the snout; the tail is very long in proportion, turned upwards, and naked towards the extremity; the tongue is narrow, a little flattened, and of a moderate length; the neck extremely short, and the head of a magnitude proportionate to the size of the body; the eyes are sunk, and not far from the corner of the mouth; the ears are small, and hidden in the fur; the legs are only three inches long, and the fore feet have only two toes, the outward much longer than the inward one; the hind legs have four; the skin is soft, of a red, shining colour, mixed with a lively yellow; the feet are more disposed for climbing and fastening to any thing than for running; it climbs trees, and hangs from the branches by the extremity of its tail. These three species have all the same natural dispositions: they feed on ants, and take a singular gratification in dipping their tongues in honey and other viscous substances; they snatch with great agility crumbs of bread and small pieces of meat, and are easily tamed and domesticated; they can support life a long time without nourishment, and when they drink they do not swallow all, but leave some part in the nostrils; they usually sleep during the day, and change their situation by night; their motion is so slow, that any person may catch them in the open field. The savage Indians eat the flesh, but it has a disagreeable taste. The female brings forth only one at a birth. They are natives of the hottest parts of America, and do not inhabit the colder climates of that continent.

Otoe.—A fruit, in the province of Guayana, in the kingdom of Tierra Firme. It grows wild without culture, and is one of the kinds of food used by the natives, as it costs them no trouble.

Otova.—A tree, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, in the new kingdom of Granada: it is particularly abundant in the town of Potute, whose inhabitants extract from it an excellent balsam, which is held in great esteem.

[*Otter.*—An animal which very much resembles the mink in its form and habits; its colour is not so dark; its size much larger, being about three feet long and 15 inches in circumference: it lives in holes in banks near the water, and feeds on fish and amphibious animals. Found in all the States of N. America.]

P.

Pabon.—See *Curbinata.*

Pacha.—An abbreviation of Francisco.

Pachae, or *Pacae.*—A term of the language of Quechua, which the Peruvians apply to the Guaba. See *Guaba.*

Paco. (*Camelus Paco.*)—A species of llama, in Peru, from which it is distinguished by the rounder figure of its head, which bears a nearer resemblance to that of the camel; the legs are also thicker, and the belly more plump; its skin is likewise for the most part of a darkish colour, and the hair is more coarse than that of the llama. The paco is also stronger and more adapted to carry burdens, and like the other species, has got the singular custom of falling on its knees, or lying down, when the burden is too heavy.

[*Pagi.*—An animal denominated by the Spaniards a lion; it may, however, be considered as an intermediate species between that and the tiger; it inhabits the thickest forests and the most inaccessible mountains, from whence it makes incursions into the plains to attack domestic animals, particularly horses, whose flesh it prefers to that of any other. Notwithstanding his ferocity, the pagi never ventures to attack a man, although he is continually hunted and persecuted by the latter. He is naturally a coward, and a woman or child will make him fly and abandon his prey. He is hunted with dogs, trained for the purpose, and when hard pressed by them, either leaps upon a tree, seeks an asylum upon a rock, or, placing himself against the trunk of some large tree, defends himself in a furious manner, killing many of his enemies, until the hunter, watching his opportunity, slips a noose around his neck. The skin serves for various uses; good leather for boots or shoes is manufactured from it, and the fat is considered as a specific in the sciatica.]

Pajaro Bobo.—A small tree or shrub, of a new kind, which sometimes grows to the thickness of a man's arm; the wood is soft and porous, like that of the maguey. In the province of Copiapo, in the kingdom of Chile, the natives plant and cultivate it at the banks of the rivers, for the sake of a resin which it distils. When prepared at the fire, it serves instead of pitch to line the inside of the vessels in which they preserve their wines; it is used for this purpose in every part of the kingdom, and for this reason the quantity consumed is very great.

Pajaro Mono.—A bird found in the province of Maynas, in the kingdom of Quito, and in other places. It is of a small size and of a brown colour; in its warbling, it changes its notes a thousand times, and has the power of imitating men, dogs, and all other animals; but what is still more singular is, that not possessing the means of defending itself from its enemies, on account of the shortness of its beak and claws, it searches protection in the company of wasps, with whom it lives in the strictest union, and builds its nest in such a manner, that they may defend it. This bird may, perhaps, be the same with the cuchucho of the Portuguese, of which species there is at present one in the street of Carmen in Madrid.

Pajaro, Niño. (*Diomedea dimersa.*)—This bird, which in other parts is called penguin, is the link or chain which unites birds and fishes, in the same manner as the flying fish forms the connection between fishes and aquatic birds; it has also got a beak and webbed feet like the aquatic birds, and feathers, though so fine, as to appear rather like hair; it has likewise two pinions, instead of wings, hanging down, and covered on the upper side with small feathers, which at first sight have the appearance of scales; but as these pinions are so very small, they serve as fins, but do not enable it to rise from the ground; it is about the size of the duck, but its neck is longer; the head is flattened on both sides, and is small, in comparison with the bulk of the body; the bill is slender, and curved towards the point; the feathers on the upper part of the body are of a grey colour, mixed with a deep blue, and those on the breast and belly are white; the tail is only a prolongation of the croup; and as the legs are placed near the anus, it always walks very erect, carrying its head in an upright position, like that of a man, and inclining it first to one side and then to the other, to preserve equilibrium, which gave rise to its being called pajaro niño, or childish bird, appearing at a distance like a child that just begins to walk. It has only three toes on each foot; and there have been some who have confounded it with the alca; but not the least doubt can be entertained, on reflecting on the shape of the bill and nostrils, but it belongs to the species of diomedeaa. Though this bird swims very well, yet it cannot resist the force of the waves when the sea is rough; hence we find so many during the winter drowned and thrown upon the coast. Travellers heap encomiums on the flesh of the penguin. The skin is nearly as thick as that of a pig, and may be easily separated from the flesh; it makes its nest in the sand, and lays six or seven eggs, speckled with black. The quethu diomedea, alis in penibus pedibus compedibus tetradactylis palmatis corpore lanuginoso, cinereo, is of the same genus, and nearly of the same size and shape with the penguin, from which it

can be distinguished only by having no down whatever on its wings; by its feet, which are divided into four toes, and likewise webbed; and by having its body covered with a sort of long, thick feathers, of an ash colour, and so curled and soft, that they seem like wool. The inhabitants of the Archipelago of Chiloe, where this bird is found in the greatest abundance, spin the feathers, and make of them very valuable counterpanes.

Pajon.—A tall, luxuriant plant, eaten by black cattle, and very abundant on the heaths and bleak parts of the cordillera of Peru, and more particularly in the territory of Chimborazo, in the kingdom of Quito. It is a species of straw, resembling the sedge, but more flexible, and half a yard high. See *Ichu.*

Palama.—See *Sasafras.*

Palo Borracho.—A large tree, growing in the province of Chaco, in Peru, of which the Indians make canoes. It grows to a great height, and is shaped like a jar; that is to say, narrow towards the bottom, very thick in the middle, and again more slender towards the top; it is covered with very sharp pricks, and the inside is soft and easily wrought; the fruit is somewhat larger than an almond, and opens of its own accord, and discovers with the seed very white tufts of cotton; it generally grows at a considerable distance from any water, and the greater the distance the larger will be the tree.

Palo de Luz.—A plant which grows on the heathy, bleak parts of the cordillera of Peru; it is about two feet high, and each branch grows perpendicular and naked till near the top, from which there proceed other small branches with two leaves each. If cut soon after it has attained its full size, and lighted whilst green, it serves as a light for the Indians, and burns like a candle till the whole stick is consumed. Mr. Valmont de Bomare, in his Dictionary of Natural History, says that this tree takes fire on being cut, and endeavours to account for it by physical demonstrations; but he must have been misinformed, since this certainly is not the case. See the true account of Don Antonio Ulloa, and Don Carlos de la Condamine.

Palo Jabon.—See *Palo Manteca.*

Palo Manteca.—A tree, which grows to the height of a man, in the province of Santa Marta, in the new kingdom of Granada; it is of a moderate thickness, very bushy, and well covered with leaves, which are something larger than the palm of the hand, rough, and of a glossy appearance, as if they had been smeared with butter, from which circumstance the tree obtained its name. The women use the leaves in washing their linen, and it makes a froth like soap, and gives to the linen the smell of mastick. A decoction of the bark of this tree is the most powerful febrifuge that is known, and its effects can only seem credible to one who has witnessed them; it is hot, dry, and bitter.

Palo Santo.—See *Guayacan.*

Palillo. (*Psidi species.*)—A fruit, in the kingdom of Peru.

Palmito. (*Palma dactilifera latifolia*, Sloan.)—The heart, or middle of a species of palm, very common in the Antilles and on the sea-coast; the tree grows to the height of 30 feet, and the wood is of a dark colour, very heavy, solid, and so hard, that the hatchet scarcely makes any impression on it; it has only one root, of a moderate size, which grows into the ground, and would not support the tree if it were not assisted by an infinite number of smaller ones, which are united to it out of the ground; the branches are long, and shoot from the top of the tree, having two rows of long, slender leaves; at the bottom of the trunk there is a kind of case, out of which there grows a bunch of small flowers, from which proceeds the fruit of the size of a little ball, of which they make a very good oil: the nut is likewise applied to the same purpose. When the trunk is cut a little more than the distance of two feet from the place where the leaves begin, the bark is removed, and the cogollo, or heart, is found, consisting of white, tender, and thin teguments, of a very agreeable taste, and when washed, is eaten in salad or boiled with salt, and makes a very pleasant food, of easy digestion. The tree is made into tubes for various purposes. There are several species of palmitos: the best is that of the prickly palm, of a yellow colour, but it is necessary to burn the pricks before it be cut The leaves of the palm-trees are used by the Indians to cover their houses.

Palta.—See *Aguacate.*

Pampa, or *Large Plain.*—A term in the language of Quechua, applied to the large plains in Buenos Ayres, upwards of 300 leagues in extent.

Pampano. (*Sparus Salpa.*)—A fish very like the besugo, or sea-bream of Laredo; and if it be the same as the one of Europe, it ought to be distinguished with the latin name, which precedes it and belongs to the pargos kind.

Pampero.—A strong, brisk wind, blowing from the west to south-east, and coming from the pampas, or plains of Buenos Ayres, from which it derives its name. In the River de la Plata, it is very dangerous, being a sort of hurricane which has caused a great number of vessels to suffer shipwreck on the coast and shoals of that river.

Panela.—The inhabitants of the town Mogotes, and several others in the province of Tunja, in the new kingdom of Granada, give this name to the sweetmeats and preserved fruits which they make to great perfection, and are held in much esteem in every part of the kingdom.

Panequiri.—A kind of short petticoat, worn by the Indian women of Darien, consisting of two yards of baize, or other cloth, which they wrap round the waste and tie with a string.

Pañete.—The name given to the coarse cloths made in the manufactories of Peru.

Paño de Corte.—A kind of tapestry of superior quality, manufactured in the city and province of Cuenca, in the kingdom of Quito, and held in great esteem.

Pantaura.—A precious stone, found in the new kingdom of Granada, of the colour of a bright amethyst, and variegated in the inside with several streaks of a very dark red.

Panuira.—The flamant is known by this name, in the province of Parinacochas, in the kingdom of Peru.

Papas, (*Solanum Tuberosum.*)—Potatoes: a root common in every part of America, and the usual food of the Indians, Negroes, and even of the people of distinction, for there is scarcely any dish without it, and in which it does not taste well; it is from two to five inches long, of a round, oval, and various other shapes; the peel is thin, smooth, and brown, and is easily loosened in hot water; the pulp is for the most part white, though in some it is red nearly, and very savoury. It is a light food, of very easy digestion, and very nutritive, but at the same time very windy. There are two distinct species, and more than 30 varieties or different sorts. Mr. Bomare says, they came originally from Chile; but this would be very difficult to prove, since the Spaniards found them in almost every province. In Ireland, they are so plentiful that the poor people feed entirely on them; and in Spain, they are become very frequent in Asturias, la Mancha, and several other parts. Mr. de Parmentier, Intendant of the Corn to the King of France, has written a treatise on this root, and has found out a means of making it into light, white bread; but this had already been practised in Gallicia. It is reckoned one of the principal productions of America.

Papaya. (*Carica Papaya.*)—A fruit of the size and shape of a moderate sized melon, at first of a green colour, but yellow when arrived at full maturity; the pulp is perfectly similar to that of the melon, very good and full of small seeds of the magnitude and shape of a pepper-corn; it is very refreshing, and is generally taken about eleven in the morning, for this purpose. The tree is about 25 feet high, of the thickness of a man's thigh, hollow, and spungy in the inside, and so soft, that it may be severed transversely at one blow. The tree is covered all the year with blossom and fruit, which is attached to the tree by long pedicles, growing out of the tree where the leaves begin to appear; the flower is very large, consisting of five yellow leaves, and resembles the lily in point of odour.

Paramo.—A very high part of the cordillera, constantly covered with snow, where it is always extremely cold.

[*Parcha.*—The passion-flower.]

Pardillo.—A valuable, strong wood, which grows to a great size in the Island of Trinidad.

Pareida Braba. (*Cisampilos Pareira.*)—Bastard or wild vine: a root growing in Brazil, usually of the thickness of the finger, but sometimes much thicker; it is woody, crooked, of a cinnamon colour, and full of longitudinal and circular grooves, like the root thimelea, and the interior is of a darkish yellow colour, consisting of fibres interwoven with each other; it has no smell, but a sweet taste mixed with an agreeable bitter; it is the most powerful diuretic in medicine, and prodigies have been performed by the decoction of this root in nephritic complaints in dissolving stones, nor are its

effects less wonderful in pleurisies and quinsies. Mr. Geofroy has practised with great success this root in curing ulcers in the kidneys and bladder; and conceiving that it might prove useful for the asthma, he made the experiment on an old man, 72 years of age, almost stifled by a viscous phlegm, which he could not eject, and wrought a perfect cure: the same happened to an old woman afflicted with an universal jaundice. Mr. Chomel says, that he cured an edimatose inflammation with pareira braba: and Lanoni asserts, that the Indians take it in powders, dissolved in milk and water, for interior and exterior abscesses, and for the hæmorrages. We have witnessed a case where, after giving a draught of the infusion in a nephritic pain, the patient discharged nine small stones, and a quantity of sand. The method of using it in the Brasils and Portugal, as related by Helvetius, is, to boil the root, well pounded and bruised, with one grain of sal amoniac, in a pint of water; and after boiling it five or six times, set it aside to cool: it is afterwards strained, and a glass taken every four hours. It is sometimes taken dry, in doses of half a scruple, with 15 grains of sal amoniac, at intervals of four hours. Father M. Sarmiento speaks of its virtues in a letter which he wrote to Don Francisco Antonio Arias.

Parotani.—A tree which grows in the island of St. Bartholomew, one of the Antilles, whose branches grow first towards the earth, and afterwards rise upwards.

[*Pasala.*—A root found in S. America.]

Pasmo.—A disease peculiar to the hot parts of America, particularly prevalent on the coasts of Tierra Firme. It is a general convulsion of the nerves, and begins with the compression of the jaws, almost taking away the power of opening the mouth, and kills the patient with inexpressible pains, without any remedy hitherto invented to prevent it. The Negroes are most subject to it; and it usually happens on wetting any sore or wound.

Pastuzo.—A name applied in the kingdom of Quito to the varnished and painted writing-desks, made in the province of Pasto.

[*Patalo.*—A delicious fish, found in the rivers of S. America.]

Patilla.—The water melon, is called by this name in the province of Carthagena.

Patisaranda.—See *Apogomatli.* A sort of rush, according to Hernandez. Monardes likewise knew it under the name of Raiz de Santa Elena, or St. Helen's root.

Pauji.—A bird in the kingdom of Peru, resembling a young pea-hen. It is very delicious, and like the pheasant, and for this reason is held in great esteem.

[*Paxaro.*—See *Pajaro.*]

Pebetero.—A sort of small pillar, made in the mines of Peru, of native silver, mixed with mercury, which is separated from the silver by fire before fusion. There are likewise little lions and other images made of the same matter.

[*Pecary.*—The pecary, which was not known in the larger islands, has been honoured with no less variety of names than the agouti. According to Rochefort it was also called *javari* and *pacquirē*. By Dampier it is named *pelas*. By Acosta *saino* and *zaino*. It is the *sus tajacu* of Linnæus, and the *pecary* and *Mexican musk-hog* of our English naturalists. Of this animal a very full and particular account has been given by Mons. Buffon in his Natural History, and by Dr. Tyson in the Philosophical Transactions. It still is said to abound in many of the provinces of Mexico; but in the W. Indian Islands the breed has been long since almost exterminated. They differ from the European hog principally in the singular but well-known circumstance of their having a musky discharge from an aperture or gland on the back, erroneously supposed to be the navel, and in the colour of their bristles, which are of pale blue, tipt with white; it is also related of this animal, that it possesses far greater courage than the hog of Europe; and when hunted by dogs, will frequently turn and compel its enemy to retreat. Thus its native bravery bringing it within the reach of fire-arms, contributed doubtless to its destruction in the islands.]

[*Pejereyes.*—Fish of fine flavour, found in the rivers of S. America.]

Pellon.—The skin of a sheep, with very long fine wool, painted different colours, and used in the kingdom of Peru and Tierra Firme, to cover the saddles of their horses, so that the rider sits as it were on a pillow, and in the field uses it for his bed. In Buenos Ayres they weave textures of the same sort.

[*Penitenciario.*—Penitentiary, one that imposes penances.]

[*Peñolaria, Montañas de.*—Certain strong posts in the mountains, or mountains so called.]

Perico Ligero, or *Sloth.* (*Bradypus Trydactilis.*)—A name applied to it on account of the slowness of its motion, and the difficulty with which it is attended. A quadruped whose misery proceeds from the singular construction of its body. The eyes are black, and covered; the hair rough, resembling dried grass; the thighs are ill shaped; the legs are short and clumsy, without a sole in the feet; and the toes united, and furnished with two or three excessively long claws bent downwards, and only moveable together, which serve rather to hinder than assist motion. All these circumstances give us the picture of a deformed animal. Slowness, insensibility, wretchedness, and even continual pain, seem to result from this strange formation. The ai and the unau, its equals, have no arms to attack another, or repel the assault of an enemy; no means of security, nor resource in flight: confined to the earth and tree in which they had birth, it is with great pain and difficulty that they crawl a fathom in an hour; and in their painful march during the night, they utter the most lamentable cries. Every thing in this animal seems to display misery, and tends to place it in the lowest degree of quadrupeds, being obliged to live on leaves and wild fruit. It requires a long time to arrive at the foot of a tree, and still longer to climb up to the branches: and in this slow and painful task, which sometimes lasts several days, it is obliged to suffer hunger; but having once got into a tree it does not come down, but hangs at the branches, and strips them successively during several weeks, without any drink to digest this dry food. When the tree is entirely bare, it still remains on it on account of the impossibility of descending, till forced by necessity, it rolls itself into a ball, and falls to the ground like a lifeless mass, not having time to extend its unwieldy legs to break the fall. Notwithstanding this their misery is only apparent; for these animals are hard, strong, and tenacious of life: they can support want of food for a long time, being covered with a dry thick skin, and prevented from taking any violent exercise. They consume very little, and grow tolerably fat, notwithstanding the scantiness of their provisions: and though they have neither horns on their heads, nor hoofs on their feet, nor incisors in the under jaw, they are nevertheless of the number of ruminating animals; and have, like them, several stomachs: they can consequently compensate for the quality of their meat, by the quantity they are enabled to take at each time. What is the most astonishing is, that instead of having the intestines very long, like other ruminating animals, they are on the contrary even shorter than those of carnivorous animals. They also appear to be little capable of sensibility; their pitiful appearance, their heavy look, and the sluggish resistance which they oppose to blows, all serve to prove their insensibility: and a still stronger may be had in making them undergo the cruel operation of the scapel by drawing out the heart and entrails, which still does not immediately deprive them of life. Both the above-mentioned species are found in the southern parts of America, but inhabit no part of Europe. They cannot support cold, and are greatly afraid of rain, and the changes from wet to dry: they change their coat, which appears more like ill-dressed hemp than hair or wool. The entrails are a poison to the dogs which eat them, though the flesh is very palatable, but only eaten by the common people. Another singularity attending the same animals is, that instead of having two exterior apertures, one for urine, and the other for the emission of excrements; and instead of having a distinct exterior orifice for the genitals, they have only one in the fundament, from which there is a common sewer as in birds. These two species of animals are not very numerous, as the female only brings forth one at each time, which she carries on her back. They sometimes hang from branches over rivers, and then it is very easy to cut the branch, and make them fall into the water, but they never quit their hold with the fore feet. In ascending a tree, they stretch out one of their fore feet as far as they can on the trunk of the tree, and fasten it with the long claw; they then raise up the body, with great difficulty, and fix the other foot, and in this manner creep along. All these movements are made with a slowness scarcely conceivable. In a state of domestication they climb up the beams and doors, and are never easy on the ground. If a pole is given them, they immediately seize it, and creep to the summit, where they fix themselves with their fore feet, and embrace the pole with all their body. Though the two above-mentioned animals bear so near a resemblance to each other, and have the same natural dispositions, yet they have some such distinguishing qualities as leave no room to doubt that they are two distinct species. The ai is smaller than the unau; its snout is shorter, the front not so deep, and the ears less visible, with only 28 ribs, whilst the unau has 46. The tail is short, it has three claws on each foot, and the hair is spotted

with black; all which circumstances are wanting in the unau. The ai is the ignasus of Clusius, of Marcgrave and Pison; the pigritia of Niremberg, the arcopithecus of Gesner, the perico ligero of Oviedo, tardigradus of Brisson, and bradypus trydactylis of Linnæus.

Pericote.—A name given to the large house-rats in every part of America.

[*Periguana.*—A bird found in S. America.]

Periquito. (*Psitacus Passerinus.*)—A bird resembling the parrot in every respect except in size, being only four inches long. There are several which are distinguished by their colours: they fly in large flocks, and make a very great noise, but do not talk like parrots when domesticated. Their flesh is eaten in many parts, and is very good.

[*Peroque.*—See *Piragua.*]

[*Perro de Mar.*—See *Liron Aquatico.*]

[*Pesita.*—A coin worth two reals of silver.]

[*Pesos fuertes.*—Hard dollars.]

Petaca.—An oblong square basket made of canes, and covered with ox hides, inside and out; a chain is fastened in the middle of one of the sides, and, descending, a link passes through a ring on the opposite side, and is there made fast by a padlock. These baskets are generally made of such a size, that one beast may carry two of them. Some are ornamented with covers, which they paint with different colours, and make images in the skin itself. They are of various sizes.

Petate.—A mat made of palm, very fine and well woven, which is generally laid on the beds in hot countries, to render them more cool.

Petoregui.—The wood of a large tree, which grows in the province of Paraguay.

Pexe Buey.—The name given to the manati, in the province of the Amazonas.

Pexe Judio.—Another name for the manati, used in the province of Honduras.

Pexe Rey. (*Ciprinus Regius.*)—A fish which is very abundant in every part of America, and has a very agreeable taste. Its usual length is six or seven inches: it is of the same species with those caught in the rivers in Spain; but in America it is only found in the sea. Those caught on the coast of the province of Buenos Ayres are the most delicious, and sometimes grow to the length of a yard.

Picaflor. (*Trochilus Colibri.*)—A bird known in other countries by the names colibri, baxaro mosca, and mellisuga, there being no animal with such a multiplicity of names as this little curious bird. Linnæus has formed of these a distinct genus under the denomination trochilus, to which he refers 22 species. They are in general extremely small, the neck short, the head in proportion; the eyes black, and very lively; the bill as slender as a pin, and equal in length to the whole body; the tongue is forked, the feet short, with four toes; the tail composed of eight or nine feathers, and as long as the body; and the wings are of such a length that the leading feathers reach to the third part of the wing. The colour is various in the different species; but in general it is the most beautiful that can be conceived, combining not only the splendor of gems and gold, but also the lustre of the most beautiful hues in nature. The brilliancy and deepness of the colours are greater or less, according to the reflection of light, or the position of the observer, possessing the privilege of retaining the hue, even after avulsion, so long as the feathers are kept dry. In spring these birds are seen like butterflies flying round flowers, from which they procure their food, though they seldom settle upon them, generally supporting themselves on the wing as if they were at rest. When they fly they make a sort of humming noise, similar to that made by a large gadfly. Its note is a sort of distinct murmur, weak, and proportioned to the organ from which it proceeds. The males are distinguished from the females by the colour of their heads, which is so lively an orange, that it sparkles like fire. They build their nests, which are extremely small, in trees, and make the outside of straw, and lining it with very soft feathers; they lay only two small eggs, of the size of a large pea, of a whitish colour, speckled with yellow, and the male and female alternately perform the office of incubation. Their time of breeding is summer; and when winter approaches, they attach themselves by the bill to a small branch, and remain in this state, immoveable, till the return of spring. During this time, in

which they are in a total lethargy, they fall into the hands of those who search for them, which seldom happens when they are in an active state, and exercise the functions and faculties of life.

Pico Feo.—See *Tulcán.*

Piedra de Cruz. (*Lapis Crucifer.*)—A stone resembling green marble, found in the new kingdom of Granada. In whatever direction this stone be broken, it displays a black cross perfectly drawn, and it is said by the natives to possess a singular virtue in curing the rheum and fevers. The great abundance of this stone makes it very common, and of little value. Mr. Bomare says that it appears to be a sort of madrepore fossil, whose veins cross each other in such a manner, that whether they are cut horizontally or vertically, there is the figure of a cross, nature filling up the spaces with a hard argillaceous earth. The same author asserts, that the same stone is found in Portugal, Santoigne, Normandy, and Guienne, and particularly near Santiago in Galicia; and that the Spanish silversmiths enchase them in gold and silver, to make people believe they are found in a polished state.

[*Piguen.*—A bird found in S. America.]

Pilco. (*Laurus caustica.*)—A sort of laurel of a moderate size, whose leaves are alternate, oval, and wrinkled, little more than an inch long, and of an obscure green colour. The fruit is in every respect like that of the common laurel; the effluvia of this tree, particularly in summer, cause swelling and pustules on the naked part of the body of any one who remains under its shade. This effect, which is not mortal, is as various as the different temperature of body in different people. Some experience from it little harm, others none, and some by merely passing under the tree are entirely covered with pustules. Notwithstanding the viscous and caustic juice with which the tree is impregnated, the natives use the wood in building, taking the precaution of making a fire at the bottom of the tree whilst they are cutting it; for as soon as it is dry, it loses its malignant juice, and acquires a beautiful red colour, striped with veins of brown and yellow. It is incorruptible in water, and, immersed in it, becomes as hard as iron, and on this account it is preferable to any other for building vessels. In Chile it is called lithy, and in Quito capsicarancha, which means the tree which gives the itch.

Piloncillo.—The crusted sugar, which remains at the bottom of the boiler, is called by this name in New Spain.

[*Pimento.*—See *Pimienta.*]

Pimienta. (*Myrtus Pimenta.*)—Of Tabasco, or Malagueta, called also pimienta of Jamaica and Chiapa. It is a small fruit or oval berry, very nearly round, like the berries of the myrtle, of a darkish red colour, not so deep as that of the black pepper. The calyx is divided into four or five parts; it has a strong aromatic smell and taste, which partake of the aromatic and pungent qualities of pepper, cinnamon, and cloves, surpassing these in such a manner that whatever meats are seasoned with it, have an agreeable taste of all sorts of spices. Each berry is divided interiorly into two, three, and even four parts, each of which contains one or two small black seeds of the shape of a kidney, and of a taste considerably less active than the berry. The tree which bears it is large, and the leaves resemble those of the orange-tree; the flower is red like that of the pomegranate, and the smell like that of the orange flower, but much more sweet and agreeable, and even the leaves surpass that of the latter; the fruit is round, and hangs in bunches. At first it is green; it afterwards becomes of a darkish red, and finally assumes a colour inclining to black. This fruit is very useful, and possesses many virtues, which may be learnt in the treatise published on this subject by Doctor Don Casimiro Gomez Ortega, professor of Botany and Natural History.

Piña. (*Bromelia Annanas.*)—One of the best fruits in the world, peculiar to America, and very abundant in every part of it. Its pleasant taste and fragrance are only equalled by the beauty of the fruit. At the top there is a small crown, consisting of small leaves of the same nature as the leaves of the plant, but much thinner, and more delicate; and when this crown is cut and set in the ground, it produces fruit the same year. The smell is something similar to that of the muscadine grape, and of the pear good christian (buen christiano): and when eaten with red wine and sugar, it tastes like strawberries. There are three kinds of piñas; the first is white, 10 inches in diameter, and from 15

to 18 inches long. The rind of this fruit, when arrived at maturity, is yellow, consisting of prominent hexagonal figures, the pulp is white and fibrous, but cannot claim the first place on account of its acidity. The second species is in the shape of a sugar-loaf or conical pyramid, and is better than the first. The third species is red, and is without comparison: of the best of this fruit they make preserves, which are very common in every part of America, and are sometimes brought into Europe. By boiling the rind 24 hours, they make a sort of cider, of a very agreeable taste, called chicha de piña, which is very sweet and refreshing, and is used as a cooling draught at 11 o'clock. It is also taken with very good effect in several diseases, such as the putrid fever and black vomit. The Peruvians give the name piña de plata to native silver after it has been separated from the mercury with which it was mixed, of which they make small square pillars, called pebeteros, young lions, and other images, like those of wax for ornament.

[*Pine*, or *Bull Snake*.—See *Serpents*.]

Pinipichi.—A small tree peculiar to America, much resembling the apple-tree. It gives after incision a milky viscous juice, which purges very violently the bile and serous humours, on taking two or three drops in a small quantity of wine. Lemery affirms, that if during its operation the patient takes broth, or any other beverage, the effects are suspended, and that whilst it continues to act it is necessary to abstain from sleep.

Piñones. (*Clutia eluterea*.)—The fruit of a shrub called mata-pinoñes, which grows to the thickness of a man's leg, and upwards of six feet high. The bark is of a palish green colour, and the leaves something like those of the vine; the fruit grows in small bunches, of from four to six capsules, of the size of galls, each of which contains three nuts, with black shells and white kernels, having always an unequal number of nine or fewer bunches, according to the age and strength of the tree. It is a purgative hydragogue when prepared with a corrective, because it causes acute pains in the primâ viâ, and violent vomits, which cease on drinking cold water. The oil extracted from the fruit is good against the dropsy, and is applied as an unguent on the stomach and belly; and a few drops taken in wine are very efficacious in curing contractions of the members, the earache, and deafness, and in dissolving obstructions. Father Caulin calls it palma christi, and it may be seen in the botanical garden at Madrid.

Piñuela.—The wood of a very large tree, which grows in the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, and much used in ship-building in the dock-yards of that country.

Piojo de Sabana.—A small and almost imperceptible insect with which the fields and plains of the kingdom of Tierra Firme are covered. They penetrate the clothes, and make holes in the legs, causing a curious itching, which is cured by killing the insect, and washing the wound with an infusion of tobacco leaves in brandy or wine.

Pipian.—A sort of food used in Peru and Tierra Firme.

Pique.—A name given in the different provinces of Peru to the Nigua.—See *Nigua*. The natives of the same kingdom likewise apply this term to a very strict friendship, approaching nearly to courtship. The term is likewise used in Spain.

Piragua.—A large canoe, managed with oars, about 30 feet long, and four broad in the middle, terminating in a point at each extremity, and about 15 inches higher at the ends than in the middle. It is divided by nine benches, at the distance of eight inches from each other; and a little higher than the benches there are pieces of wood, nailed on the sides, to support the ribs. Each piragua has two masts and two square sails. When the Indians go to sea in these boats, on any warlike expedition, they only take one or two women in each to cook the victuals; but when they travel they take on board all their family.

Piritu.—A species of palm in the new kingdom of Granada and province of Piritu, from which it derives its name. It is a sort of cane, covered with pricks, and very black, and so strong and smooth that it is made into tobacco pipes, and stands the fire very well. These pipes are very common in the above-mentioned kingdom whilst the plant is unripe. The fruit hangs in bunches like grapes.

[*Pissipini*.—A plant found in S. America, particularly in the province of Cumaná, often used as an emetic.]

Pita. (*Agave Americana*.)—A genus of the class hexandria monogynia. It grows to a great

height, and has large leaves full of a thick solid substance, denticulated, eight palms long, and differing very little from those of Europe. From these they extract a sort of hemp, more fine and strong than the common sort, of it they make thread for sewing the more ordinary things, such as sacks and bags for money, and it is made into ropes of all sizes. Hence the quantity consumed is very great, and they have considerable traffic in this article.

Pita Haya. (*Cactus Pitahaya.*)—A large curious tree, whose branches are so grooved as to have the appearance of long candles, shooting perpendicularly upwards from the trunk. They have not a single leaf, and the fruit grows fast attached to the branch itself. The peel of the fruit is covered with pricks, and is something similar to the tuna, or Indian fig, but the pulp is whiter and more delicious. Some are yellow, others red; they are likewise distinguished by the appellations of sweet, and a compound of bitter and sweet, but very agreeable to the taste. Monardes gives it the name of cardin, and it is very abundant in the botanical garden of Madrid.

[*Pita jaya.*—See *Pita Haya.*]

Pito Real.—A name applied in New Spain to the bird tulcan. See *Tulcan.* Mr. Bomare in his description of this bird, confounds it with the carpintero, which is a different bird.

Piuquen. (*Otis Chilensis.*)—A species of bustard in the kingdom of Chile, larger than the European, and of a white colour. The head and primary quills of both wings are of an ash-colour, the pinions black, and the tail short, consisting of eighteen white feathers. It has no excrescency either on the head or throat. The bill is of a moderate size, resembling that of the bustard. The feet consist of four large toes, and the heel is situated a little higher than these. This bird takes great delight in running about the fields with others of its species, and its food consists chiefly of herbs. It does not begin to breed till it is two years old, and then the female lays six eggs, larger than those of the goose; the flesh is better tasted than that of the turkey.

[*Piure.*—A testaceous fish found in S. America.]

Pixbae.—A fruit common in the kingdom of Tierra Firme. It is of a conical shape, almost like the fig, and of a darkish yellow colour, covered with a rind of orange. The pulp is mealy, and is eaten boiled or roasted, and the natives of the province of Guaimi in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, formerly used no other food than this fruit, nor beverage, except the liquor made of it with water. The tree which produces it is like the date palm-tree, but taller, and only produces six or seven bunches, each consisting of fifty or sixty pixbaes. It is wild, and grows without any trouble or expense; monkies are very fond of this fruit.

Planta Universal.—A plant in the province and country of the Iroquese Indians in New France, or Canada, in N. America. The French missionaries of the society of Jesus, gave it this name on account of its sovereign virtue in curing all sorts of wounds. The leaves are as large as a man's hand, and of the shape of the leaves of a lily.

Platano. (*Musa.*)—A genus of the class monœcia polyandria. The cup of the male is destitute of a corolla, and that of the female consists of some leaves; the stygma is bent downwards, and the seed is circular. The fruit is generally about an inch and a half in diameter, and 10 or 12 in length, something curved. It is not circular, but rather an hexagon, with the angles made round and terminating in hexagonal points. The skin, which is smooth, and of a green colour before it is ripe, afterwards becomes yellow, and contains a substance resembling cheese, without seeds, and only a few large fibres. After the plantain is past maturity, the rind turns black, and the pulp becomes sour. Its taste is very similar to that of the pear. It is the best food which the Negroes have, and all classes of animals are very fond of it; which is an incontestable proof of its goodness. The tree, or rather the plant which bears the plantain, gives fruit only once, in large bunches, and is immediately cut, or if left, it withers and falls; but the root, which is large, round, and solid, produces fresh supplies, which in 12 or 14 months yield fruit and decay, and the roots shoot forth again without there being any necessity for planting them. The plant is not woody, nor has it any bark, but is a thick cylindrical body, consisting of a great number of long broad leaves, wrapped round each other, the outer ones serving as a rind to the others. It arrives at its full height in about nine months, and is then about 10 or 12 inches in diameter, which does not render it any harder, or more difficult to cut. This plant requires a moist, rich and solid land, as it needs much nourishment, and if any of these be wanting it ceases to

prosper, and gives an inferior kind of fruit. Before it is ripe it is boiled like turnips with meat, and is eaten after this method by sailors and fishermen. It is also roasted on coals, and used by the Negroes instead of bread. When boiled in wine, with sugar and cinnamon, it assumes a beautiful red colour, and acquires a delicious taste and fragrant smell; and is one of the best preserves which the Creoles make. There are four species of plantains, distinguished by the names bananas, guineas, dominicos, and cambures. See these articles.

[*Playon.*—The same as playa, which is the shore, or sea-coast.]

[*Plaza.*—The chief square or place in a town, also, sometimes the armoury.]

Polizon.—An European who goes to America without any destination, office, or employ.

Polizones.—Two cords of black silk, having at each end a tassel like velvet, set with small pearls in the shape of an arch. They are worn by the women of Guayaquil, in the earrings, and are a very beautiful ornament.

Polleras.—The generical term used in S. America for the outermost petticoat worn by women.

Pommegris.—The apple most prized in Canada. It is small, of a light brown, and somewhat resembling the russetin in appearance.]

Pomo.—A round silver vessel with one aperture, like the round brass tea-pots brought from Germany. They are about a foot in diameter, and are filled with sweet scented water, and placed in small braziers in the chancel of the church, on grand festivals, and exhale a very agreeable odour.

Poncho.—A square garment for riding on horseback worn in S. America, and particularly in Peru and Chile. The head passes through a hole in the middle, and the garment hangs down on every side and protects the body. Some are extremely costly, bordered with silk, silver, and gold; they are sometimes worn by ladies.

Pongo.—A strait or narrow passage.

[*Port Charges.*—These charges, in Brasil, to each vessel of whatever dimensions, except men of war, or king's packets, are,

At Pernambuco and Bahia.

	Reas.	£.	*s.*	*d.*
Pilotage, entrance and departure	7,000	1	19	4½
For entrance into, and departure from the ports	4,000	1	2	6
Anchorage per diem	2,000	0	11	3
Patri-mor, or harbour-master, per diem	1,000	0	5	7½
Linguister (total)	2,000	0	11	3
Six custom-house guards, at three patachas each per diem, eating at their own cost whilst on board	5,760	1	12	5
Guard de Mor, of tobacco (total)	3,200	0	18	0
Ditto of Alfandego, or custom-house	1,280	0	7	2
Forming a total first expense of	17,480	4	18	4
Additional daily one	8,760	2	9	3½

At Rio Janeiro.

Entrance and exit, including pilotage	25,600	7	4	0
Linguister, daily	1,000	0	5	7½
Anchorage, ditto	1,000	0	5	7½
Two guards, ditto	1,920	0	10	9½
First expense	25,600	7	4	0
Daily one	3,920	1	2	0½]

[*Postulador*, Postulant.—One who solicits the beatification and canonization of some saint.]

Potichi.—A quadruped in the province of Guayana. It is a species of what the natives call baquira, or mountain boar, whose flesh resembles that of the wild boar. This species is the best, and lives on maize, pumpkins, potatoes, and other fruits, committing great ravages on the cultivated lands. On

this account they are constantly pursued by the farmers, who set guards to preserve their crops from their depredations.

[*Praire.*—An open meadow country.]

[*Precentor.*—Præcenter: he that leads the choir.]

Predicador.—See *Tulcan.*

Preñadilla.—A small delicious fish in the lake Cuicocha, in the province of Otavalo, in the kingdom of Quito. It is about an inch long, and entirely destitute of scales. They are so much esteemed, that great quantities are daily caught and pickled for exportation; from which source the Indians derive great gain. It is a species of boguilla, and is, perhaps, the cuitlapeth of Hernandez.

Presbyterianos.—A sect of Protestants who derive their name from the opinion to which they adhere, that the government of the church, as pointed out in the New Testament, ought to be vested in the hands of presbiters, or priests; that there is no order in the church established by Jesus Christ and his Apostles, superior to priesthood, and that all ministers, being Christ's ambassadors, have equal commissions, and therefore bishops and priests are on the same footing. The only difference between the Presbyterians and Protestants of England is relative to the discipline and government of the church.

[*Presidio.*—A garrison.]

Prieto.—A word signifying the same as black.

[*Provisor.*—An ecclesiastical judge, to whom the bishop delegates his authority in causes belonging to his forum.]

[*Provincial.*—The superior of a convent of monks.]

Puchugchu.—A plant growing in the cold parts of the mountains of the Andes. It is of the shape of a loaf, the leaves are round, and appear like a musk rose. The roots of this plant interweave with each other in such a manner that they form a solid mass in the earth, two feet thick, and so very hard that the force of a man cannot separate them.

Puelche.—A name given in the kingdom of Chile to the south wind, which comes from the cordillera, and is very troublesome and disagreeable. It takes its name from the Puelches Indians, from whence it proceeds.

Pulperia.—This name is given in almost every part of America to the chandler's shops, where oil, vinegar, and other ordinary provisions are sold. The persons who keep the shops are called pulpero.

Pulque.—A liquor very common in New Spain. It is the juice of the maguey, after fermentation, and is prepared in the following manner; when the plant is six or seven years old, they cut off the head, and with an instrument resembling a spoon, made of steel, and sharpened at the edges, called by them ocascle, they make a hole in the plant, which distils a sweet water, very clear and of a taste not disagreeable, which they collect twice a day, at morning and at night, in the quantity of about a quart at each time. They then put it into jars, and throw in a few herbs and small fruits, which cause it to ferment, and it is then ready for drinking; but if preserved more than one or two days, it grows stale. This liquor produces intoxication, and supplies the place of wine, and was used by the Indians before the conquest. Eighty or ninety thousand pints of this liquor are brought into Mexico every morning and two in the afternoon; it is always found in two out of the forty-two shops in which it is sold, and in these it is ordered to be kept, lest it should be wanted as a remedy for several diseases, for which they use it. For every load they pay a real, import duty; and the product which hence accrues to the royal treasury is very considerable.

Puma. (*Felis Onza sive Jaguara.*)—A quadruped which has obtained this name in Peru, and is improperly called by Europeans the lion, having no likeness to those of Africa, either in size, fierceness, colour, nor mane. Its head, indeed, has some resemblance to that of the lion and tiger. The tail is shorter than that of either of the two last-mentioned animals; it climbs trees, and is at the same time both timid and cowardly, and flies at the sight of a man, so that it does not differ less from the real lion in its natural dispositions, than in the shape of its body in other respects; we have not a complete description of this animal. Modern naturalists place it in the genus of the felixs, and in the species of jaguara, which they believe is the ounce of the antients.

Puna.—The high cold parts of any province or country are distinguished by this name in Peru.

Pupitiri. (*Fungilla Melva.*)—A singing bird in the province of Piritu in the new kingdom of Granada. It is about the size of the goldfinch, and of a green colour; the first joints of the wings something black, and the bill a little curved.

Purpura Maritima.—A liquor procured from a shell fish of a purple colour, found on the coast of Huamelula, with which they dye cotton cloths, which are held in great esteem. This fish is of the same nature with those found on the coast of Guayaquil and Veragua in the kingdom of Tierra Firme, and is the same with the murex of the ancients.

[*Purus.*—The name which the natives give to the river Cuchigara.]

Q.

Quacaros.—Quakers; a sect of heretics founded in England, in 1647, by George Fox, and established in the English Colonies in America by Penn, son of the celebrated admiral of that name, in the reign of Charles the Second, King of England. In order to settle themselves in America, they bought of the Indians the first land which they possessed, not thinking themselves justified in taking possession of what belonged to the natives, nor to make use of arms. The Quakers are scrupulous observers of the most rigid moral virtues, and their fundamental principle is charity, affection for the poor, and a disposition to assist each other mutually to the farthest extent in case of need.

[*Quadras.*—Large squares or gardens found in the cities of S. America, as well as those of Old Spain.]

[*Quadrupeds.*—American, or of the New World, compared with those found in the Old World.

N. B. The following list is borrowed from Mr. Pennant's Second Edition of his Arctic Zoology, *page* cclxix *of the* Introduction. *The references are to the Second Edition of his History of Quadrupeds. published in* 1792.

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

HOOFED.

[GENUS.	HIST. QUADRUPEDS.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
I. Ox.	Bison, - - - No. 6.	In parts of Lithuania, and about Mount Caucasus; except there, universally domesticated.	To the *w.* of Canada, and as low as Louisiana. In New Mexico, on the *w.* side of N. America.
	Musk, - - - No. 9.	- - - - - - - - - -	To the *n.* of Hudson's Bay, from Churchill River, to lat 73°, and among the Christinaux, and in New Mexico.
II. Sheep.	Wild, - - - p. 36.	Sardinia. Corsica. Crete. N. of India. Persian Alps. About the Onon and Argun, in Siberia. Mongalia, to lat. 60° *e.* of the Lena, and quite to Kamtschatka.	Suspected to be found in California; but not on the best authorities.
III. Deer.	Moose, - - No. 42.	Norway. Sweden, to lat. 64°. Russia. Siberia, as low as lat. 53°. As far *e.* as Lake Baikal; and in the *n.* of China to the *n.* of Corea. lat. 45°.	Hudson's Bay. Canada. Nova Scotia. New England, and near the *n.* part of the river Ohio.]

[GENUS.	HIST. QUADRUPEDS.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
	Rein, - - - No. 43.	Lapland. Norway. Samoiedea. Along the Arctic coasts, to Kamtschatka. In the Urallian mountains to Kungur, in lat. 57° 10′. About Lake Baikal. Spitzbergen. Greenland.	Hudson's Bay. N. parts of Canada. Labrador. Island of Newfoundland.
	Stag. - - - No. 45.	Norway, and most part of Europe to the *s.* In the *n.* of Asia. China. Barbary, E.	From Canada, over all parts of N. America. Mexico.
	Great Stag, - - -	In various parts of N. America; from New England, to the Allegany Chain behind Pennsylvania. It is in America usually called the round-horned elk. See Jefferson, p. 88. This as yet has never been fully described. Communicated by Mr. Pennant from his MS. notes.	
	Virginian, - No. 46.	- - - - - - - - - -	From the provinces *s.* of Canada to Florida. Perhaps in Guayana.
	Mexican Roe, No. 52.	- - - - - - - - - -	Interior *n. w.* parts of America. Mexico.
	Roe, - - - - No. 51.	Norway. Sweden. Most part of Europe, except Russia. Scotland.	According to Charlevoix, in Canada.

DIGITATED.

DIVISION I.

IV. Dog.	Wolf, - - No. 137.	From the Arctic circle to the most *s.* part of Europe. In Asia, from the circle to Persia. Kamtschatka. All parts of Africa.	From Hudson's Bay to the most *s.* parts of N. America.
	Arctic Fox, No. 140.	Within the whole Arctic circle. Iceland. Spitzbergen. Greenland. Finmark. N. of Siberia. Kamtschatka, and its isles.	Hudson's Bay. The isles in the high latitudes on the *w.* side of America.
	Common Fox, No. 139.	In all parts of Europe, and the cold and temperate parts of Asia. Kamtschatka, and its furthest isles. Iceland.	From Hudson's Bay, cross the continent to the Fox Isles. Labrador. Newfoundland. Canada. Not further *s.*: a variety only, the brandt fox, in Pennsylvania.]

[GENUS.	HIST. QUADRUPEDS.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
	Grey, - - No. 142.	- - - - - - - - - -	From New England to the *s.* end of N. America.
	Silvery, - - No. 143.	- - - - - - - - - -	In Louisiana.
V. CAT.	Puma, - - No. 160.	- - - - - - - - - -	From Canada to Florida; thence through Mexico, quite to Quito in Peru.
	Lynx, - - No. 170.	Forests of the *n.* of Europe, and many of the *s.* Spain. N. of Asia, and the mountains in the *n.* of India.	From Canada, over most parts of N. America.
	Bay Lynx, - No. 171.	- - - - - - - - - -	In the province of New York.
	Mountain, - No. 168.	- - - - - - - - - -	Carolina, and perhaps other parts of N. America.
VI. BEAR.	Polar, - - No. 175.	Within the whole polar circle of Europe and Asia.	The same in America; also as low as Hudson's Bay and Labrador.
	Black, - - No. 174.	Jeso Masima, *n.* of Japan; perhaps in Japan.	In all parts of N. America.
	Brown, - - ibid.	In most parts of Europe, *n.* and *s.* The same in Asia, even as far as Arabia. Barbary. Ceylon. Kamtschatka.	To the *n. w.* of Hudson's Bay, and on the *w.* side of America. About Nootka Sound. On the Andes of Peru.
	Wolverene, No. 176.	N. of Norway. Lapland. N. of Siberia. Kamtschatka.	As far *n.* as the Copper River, and *s.* as the country between Lake Huron and Superior. On the *w.* side of N. America.
	Raccoon, - No. 178.	- - - - - - - - - -	From New England to Florida. Mexico. Isles of Maria, near Cape Corrientes, in the S. Sea.
VII. BADGER.	Common, - No. 179.	In the *s.* of Norway, and all the more *s.* parts of Europe. In the temperate parts of Asia, as far as China eastward. E.	In the neighbourhood of Hudson's Bay. Terra de Labrador, and as low as Pennsylvania.
VIII. OPOSSUM.	Virginian, - No. 181.	- - - - - - - - - -	As far *n.* as Canada, and from thence to the Brasils and Peru.
IX. WEAZLE.	Common, - No. 192.	Most parts of Europe. Siberia. Kamtschatka. Barbary. E.	Hudson's Bay. Newfoundland. As far *s.* as Carolina.
	Stoat, - - No. 193.	All the *n.* parts of Europe and Asia; and as far as Kamtschatka and the Kuril isles. E.	Hudson's Bay, and as low as Newfoundland and Canada.
	Pine Martin, No. 200.	N. of Europe. Rare in France. Only in the *w.* of Siberia. In China. E.	N. parts of N. America, quite to the S. Sea.
	Pekan, - - No. 204.	- - - - - - - - - -	Hudson's Bay. Canada.
	Vison, - - No. 205.	- - - - - - - - - -	Canada.
	Sable, - - No. 201.	Siberia. Kamtschatka. Kuril isles.	Canada.]

[GENUS.	HIST. QUADRUPEDS.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
	Fisher, - - No. 202.	- - - - - - - - - -	Hudson's Bay. New England. Pennsylvania.
	Striated, - - No. 217.	- - - - - - - - - -	Pennsylvania to Louisiana.
	Skunk, - - No. 218.	- - - - - - - - - -	From Hudson's Bay to Peru.
X. OTTER.	Common, - No. 226.	N. Europe and Asia. Kamtschatka. E.	From Hudson's Bay to Louisiana.
	Lesser, - - No. 228.	About the banks of the Yaik. Poland. Lithuania. Finland.	From New Jersey to Carolina.
	Sea, - - - No. 230.	Kamtschatka. Kuril isles.	W. coasts of America.
		DIVISION II.	
XI. HARE.	Varying, - No. 242.	Scandinavia. Russia. Siberia. Kamtschatka. Greenland. E.	Hudson's Bay. About Cook's River.
	American, - No. 243.	- - - - - - - - - -	From Hudson's Bay to the extremity of N. America.
	Alpine, - - No. 248.	From the Altaic chain to Lake Baikal; thence to Kamtschatka.	Aleutian Isles. Possibly the *w.* of N. America.
XII. BEAVER.	Castor, - - No. 251.	Scandinavia. About the Jenesei and Konda. In Casan, and about the Yaik.	From Hudson's Bay to Louisiana.
	Musk, - - No. 252.	- - - - - - - - - -	From Hudson's Bay to Louisiana.
XIII. PORCUPINE.	Canada, - No. 257.	- - - - - - - - - -	From Hudson's Bay to Virginia.
XIV. MARMOT.	Quebec, - No. 259.	- - - - - - - - - -	Canada.
	Maryland, - No. 260.	- - - - - - - - - -	From Pennsylvania to the Bahama Isles.
	Hoary, - - No. 261.	- - - - - - - - - -	N. of N. America.
	Tail-less, - No. 265.	- - - - - - - - - -	Hudson's Bay.
	Ear-less, - - No. 263.	Bohemia. Austria. Hungary. From the Occa, over the temperate parts of Siberia. About Jakutz. Kamtschatka.	W. side of N. America.
XV. SQUIRREL.	Hudson, - - No. 274.	- - - - - - - - - -	Hudson's Bay. Labrador.
	Grey, - - No. 272.	- - - - - - - - - -	New England to Peru and Chile.
	Black, - - No. 273.	- - - - - - - - - -	New England to Mexico.
	Flying, - - No. 283.	- - - - - - - - - -	From the *s.* part of Hudson's Bay to Mexico.
	Hooded, - No. 284.	- - - - - - - - - -	Virginia.
	Severn River, No. 282.	- - - - - - - - - -	Hudson's Bay.
XVI. DORMOUSE.	Striped, - No 286.	Siberia, as high as lat. 65°.	Hudson's Bay to Louisiana.
	English, - No. 289.	Sweden, and all Europe *s.* E. Carolina.	
XVII. RAT.	Black, - - No. 297.	All Europe. Many of the S. Sea islands. E.	The rocks among the Blue Mountains.]

[GENUS.	HIST. QUADRUPEDS.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
	American, - No. 299	Mongolia.	N. America.
	Water, - - No. 300.	From Lapland to the *s.* of Europe. From Petersburgh to Kamtschatka, and as low as the Caspian Sea, and Persia. E.	From Canada to Carolina.
	Mouse, - - No. 301.	Universal. E.	Among the rocks, with the Black Rat.
	Field, - - No. 302.	All Europe. Not beyond the Urallian chain. E.	Hudson's Bay. New York.
	Virginian, - No. 307.	- - - - - - - - - -	Virginia.
	Labrador, - No. 295.	- - - - - - - - - -	Hudson's Bay. Labrador.
	Hudson's, - No. 319.	- - - - - - - - - -	Same places.
	Meadow, - No. 322.	Sweden. All temperate Russia. In Siberia only to the Irtisch. E.	Hudson's Bay. Newfoundland.
	Hare-tailed, No. 320.	Siberia.	Hudson's Bay.
XVIII. SHREW.	Fœtid, - - No. 341.	Europe. Siberia. Kamtschatka. E.	Hudson's Bay. Carolina.
XIX. MOLE.	Long-tailed, No. 352.	- - - - - - - - - -	New York. Interior parts of Hudson's Bay.
	Radiated, - No. 351.	- - - - - - - - - -	New York.
	Brown, - - No. 353.	- - - - - - - - - -	New York.
		DIVISION III.	
XX. WALRUS.	Arctic, - - No. 373.	Spitzbergen. Greenland. Nova Zembla. The coast of the Frozen Sea. And on the Asiatic side, to the *s.* of Behring's Straits, as low as lat. 62° 50′.	Hudson's Bay. Gulf of St. Laurence. On the *w.* side of America, as low as lat. 58° 42′.
XXI. SEAL.	Common, - No. 372.	All the European and *n.* Asiatic seas, even to the farthest *n.* Kamtschatka.	N. seas of America.
	Rubbon, - No. 380.	The Kuril isles.	
	Great, - No. 382.	Greenland and Kamtschatka. E.	W. of N. America.
	Leporine, - No. 381.	White Sea. Iceland. Spitzbergen. Kamtschatka.	(There can be no doubt that every species of Seal is found on the American coast.)
	Hooded, - No. 285.		
	Harp, - - No. 385.	Spitzbergen. Greenland. Iceland. White Sea. Kamtschatka.	
	Rough, - - No. 283.		
	Ursine, - - No. 387.	Kamtschatka. New Zealand.	W. of America, and from the Isle of Gallipagos to New Georgia.
	Leonine, - No. 389.	Kamtschatka.	W. of America. Straits of Magellan. Statenland. Falkland Isles.
XXII. MANATI.	Whale-tailed, No. 390.	Behring's Isle, and near the isle of St. Mauritius.	W. of America.
	Sea Ape, - - p. 392.	- - - - - - - - - -	W. of America.

[DIVISION IV.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADRUPEDS.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
XXIII. Bat.	New York, - No. 403.	New Zealand.	New York.
	Long-haired, No. 83.	- - - - - - - - - -	Carolina.
	Noctule, - No. 407.	France. E.	Hudson's Bay.]

Quapaxtle.—A fragrant aromatic herb growing in New Spain, which the natives cultivate, particularly in the jurisdiction of Malinalco, and carry it to Mexico and other places.

Quarterón.—The offspring of a white man and Mulatto woman, or *vice versa.*

Quartillo.—An effective silver coin, current only in the new kingdom of Granada. It is half of the half real, or the Spanish real de vellon. In the other provinces of America it is only an imaginary coin.

[*Quebrada.*—A ravine.]

Quebracho, or *Quiebra Hacha.*—A hard heavy wood growing in several provinces of S. America. It has obtained this name because its hardness is so excessive, that it breaks the hatchets when they cut it. There are two species, red and white. In Buenos Ayres they make of this wood axle-trees for the carts, which, in Tucuman, sometimes cost 1800 or 2000 piastres, on account of the great difficulty and expense of the carriage; but they last for ever, and the expense which has once been made need never be renewed.

Quebranta-huesos. (*Falco Ossifragus.*)—A bird in S. America, generally found in the company of the gallinazos. They are of the same size as the last-mentioned bird, and equally carnivorous, but better shaped and cleaner. The head and neck in some are red, in others white, and in some a mixture of both colours. They have a collar of feathers a little above the lower part of the neck, and a very beautiful crest on the head. They are more nimble than the gallinazos. Laguna calls this bird aguilucho marino; but we are at a loss to judge why he gave it this name, since it is not a sea-fowl.

Quechúe.—A fruit in the province of Guayana, or New Andalusia, which always preserves its green colour. It is of a sweet taste, resembling the European mulberry, but is of very short continuance, for as soon as it grows ripe it falls from the tree, rots, and grows sour.

Quesadillo.—A very white and excellent sort of biscuit, made in the district of Ambato in the kingdom of Quito. They are so much esteemed, that the natives carry them to many distant ports, without any one hitherto having discovered the secret of imitating them, though they carry from Ambato water and flour, and procure from thence a baker; the climate, without doubt, contributing in a particular manner to their excellency.

Queyapi.—The name by which the Abipones Indians in Peru call the garment worn by the women, which is made of the skins of animals well dressed, resembling the hide of the buffalo.

Quiaguequenoto. (*Mates formicarum.*)—A snake which feeds on ants, very abundant in the province of Piritu in the new kingdom of Granada, where it is known by the above name. It is not more singular for the choice of its food, than for the symmetrical distribution of black and white spots on its body. It is about 14 feet long and four or five inches in diameter. It permits people to approach and take hold of it, like the most inoffensive animal, without doing them the least injury, and for this reason some Indians pay it divine homage.

Quina. (*Cinchona Officinalis.*)—A genus of the class pentandria monogynia. The corolla is campanular, and the pod is under the flower and open at the base. The quina is the bark of a tree, growing in great abundance in the province of Loxa and kingdom of Quito, and in several other places. The tree is about two fathoms and a half high. The incomparable virtue of the quina, as a vermifuge, was first made known by an Indian to the corregidor of the province of Loxa, and by him to the Jesuits, who first used it in a violent tertian ague which afflicted the Countess of Chinchon, lady of the Viceroy of Peru, from whose title, with very small alterations, botanists have hitherto called it, esteeming the cure very wonderful. The bark was first used in powders called, from the above-mentioned lady, countess powders. In Peru and Europe they gave it the name of Jesuits bark, because these first

brought it into Spain and to Rome in the year 1649, and it still retains this name in England. In Rome it had a long time the name of Cardinal de Lugo, who first received it from the Jesuits, and distributed it to all who stood in need of it. Experience has corrected the abuse and the bad manner in which it was prescribed in the beginning, and Mr. Robert Talbot, an English gentleman, discovered a secure method in the year 1679. This bark resembles cinnamon in appearance, and is very bitter, and on this account is a very good stomachic, fortifies the stomach, restores appetite, expels wind, destroy worms, and is an emenagogue and diuretic. All the most celebrated doctors, such as Boerhave, Sidenham, Baglivio, Morton, Buchan, and others, have made wonderful use of this bark, which ought to be looked upon by the human race, as the greatest treasure which America has produced. Its virtue in stopping gangrenes is not less wonderful than in fevers, and it is the most efficacious preservative against putrid diseases; for having made the experiment of putting a piece of putrid flesh into a decoction of bark, the flesh lost its stench and all signs of putrefaction. To give a complete knowledge of the virtues, qualities, and method of prescribing this bark, would require a volume; and who wishes to be fully instructed in these points, may consult the article Peruvian Bark, in James's large Medical Dictionary.

Quinaquina.—See *Cascarilla.*

Quinchimali. (*Quincham alium: Mol.*)—A plant growing in the kingdom of Chile, about nine inches high, and puts forth a great number of sprouts, covered with leaves, which are alternate, and resemble those of the linaria aurca tragi, with tubular flowers divided into five oval parts, like those of the jasmin, and placed in pods, which have the shape of a parasol at the end of the branches. The seeds are lenticular and black, and enclosed in a spheroidal capsule, divided into three parts. When a peasant receives a violent fall, he drinks the juice of the quinchamali, extracted by expression or decoction; for frequent experiments evince, that it has a wonderful virtue in dissolving and expelling stagnant and extravasated blood, and even in healing internal wounds.

[*Quintal.*—A measure containing 100 Spanish pounds; but it is of 100 pounds bare. Four arrobas make one quintal; and each arroba is 25 pounds.

Quinte.—A species of fallow deer, though something smaller, found in New Spain, particularly in the province of Tabasco.

Quinteron.—The offspring of a white man and a Quarterona, or *vice versa.*

[*Quinua.*—See *Quina.*]

[*Quiriquinchos.*—Supposed to be insects found in various parts of S. America.]

[*Quisco.*—A tree found in S. America, particularly in the province of Coquimbo. The thorns of it, which are eight inches long, are used by the natives for nitting needles.]

R.

Rabo Pelado.—A quadruped in the province of Guayana, where it is very abundant, and likewise found in some other places. It is of the vulpine species, and about the size of a small fox, which it resembles in the snout and mouth; the skin is of a dark chesnut colour, and the tail, from the half way to the extremity, quite smooth and naked; for which reason they give it the name of rabo pelado, or naked tail. The females have under the belly a sort of pouch, hairy in the inside and close, in which they nurse and carry their young, which are generally attached to the paps, inclosed within the pouch, and do not quit their hold till they can follow the mother. This animal is naturally ferocious, and feeds on birds, which it surprises at midnight, which is its only time for appearing abroad, leaving the day for repose. The tail, when reduced to a powder and given in a quantity of about two scruples, possesses great virtue in destroying viscosities in the bladder and kidneys. According to William Pison, there are two other species, less than the one described. The most rare species is about the size of a young cat of two months old, which has a bag at the bottom of the neck, which it fills with maize. They are employed during the night in procuring provisions for the day, during which they remain hidden in their holes. The other species is amphibious.

[*Raccoon.*—The raccoon, in the form and size of its body, resembles the fox; his legs are larger and shorter. His toes are long, and armed with short claws. His body is grey; his tail annulated with

alternate rings of black and brown. In his manners he resembles the squirrel; like him he lives on trees, feeds on Indian corn, acorns, &c. and serves himself with his fore paws. His flesh is good meat, and his fur is valued by the hatters. He is found in all the climates of the temperate zone in N. America.]

Rancheria.—Or a place where several people assemble to eat together; houses or huts situate on the roads, like our inns in Europe, for the accommodation of travellers.

[*Ranchos de labor.*—Temporary habitations for the convenience of workmen.]

Rapadura, or *Raspadura.*—Black encrusted sugar, which remains in the boiler after the finer sugar has been made in the sugar-mills, and is a sweet under different names, frequently used by the common people in almost all the provinces of America. It is made in two separate pieces, which are formed in a small cup, in the shape of two segments of a sphere, which are placed together and wrapped in leaves, and sold in all the pulperias, or chandler's shops, and the quantity consued almost exceeds belief. In New Spain it is called piloncillo.

Raton.—A fish in the river Guayaquil.

[*Rattle-snake.*—See *Serpents.*]

[*Raudales.*—The name given by the Spaniards to the windings of rivers.]

[*Real de Minas.*—The place where the duties of the mines are paid.]

[*Real de Vellon.*—A Spanish coin, in which invoices are usually made out.]

[*Real de Plata.*—The coin most commonly used in invoices in S. America. Eight of them form the value of the dollar, or 12½ cents. Five reals amount only to 2*s.* 8¾*d.*]

[*Reduccion.*—A settlement composed of Indians civilized and instructed in the articles of the Chrstian faith.]

[*Repartimiento.*—One of the original subdivisions of the governments in S. America, or a kind of fiefs, being a system that was attended with great abuses. The *repartimiento* seemed entirely intended for the protection of the Indians, excluding all conditions relating to their instruction and civilization, or but partially bringing them into view. This system was followed by the *encomienda*, and afterwards by the plan of the missionaries.]

[*Reuli.*—A tree found in S. America.]

Reyeque.—A fish which is very abundant in the rivers of Chile.

[*Rincon.*—A corner.]

[*Robalo.*—A sort of fish as big as a large trout, and sometimes so designated in this Dictionary, though not exactly similiar to that species of fish found in England.]

Rodadores.—Small round flies which are always on the wing, and fly continually round a person, and giving a great deal of trouble by their buzzing and bites. The number of these flies is extremely great.

Rogereenes.—A sect of English, who have a place of worship in the province of New Jersey, in the United States of America.

Rosario.—De Santa Elena. See *Apoyomatli.*

[*Rovo.*—An earth found in S. America, particularly in Chile, producing an excellent black dye, and represented by Feuille and Frazier as superior to the best European black.]

Ruana.—A sort of woollen cloth made in the manufactories of Peru, with which the common people are principally clothed.

S.

Sabana.—A plain even country, without hills or inequalities.

Sabanilla.—A sort of woollen cloth manufactured by the Indians of the Archipelago of Chiloe

[*Sala de Armas.*—Armory.]

Salado.—See *Charquecillo.*

[*Salinas.*—Salt ponds, or rather tracts of country, which at times being covered with water, and then dried by the sun, leave a sediment of salt upon the earth so exuded.]

Salta Atras.—The offspring of a Quarteron man and Mulatto woman, or *vice versa*, called so because instead of approaching nearer the white colour and complexion of an European, they go farther from it. In New Spain they are called Torna Atras.

[*Sapajou*, or *Sagoin.*—There are various species of animals said to inhabit the country on the lower part of the Mississippi, called Sapajous and Sagoins. The former are capable of suspending themselves by their tails; the latter are not. They have a general resemblance to monkies; but are not sufficiently known, to be particularly described.]

Saramicues.—A large formidable venomous serpent in the province and country of the Amazonas.

Sargazo. (*Fucus Natans.*)—A sort of sea weed, which grows to about the height of a span. It has no visible roots, but there may be seen in the leaves some small white fibres, by which it apparently fastens itself to the rocks and cliffs. The leaves are narrow and serrated, something similar to those of the oak. At the stem and extremity of each leaf there are little blisters of the size of a peppercorn, full of water, and easily burst by squeezing them between the fingers. The plant has a whitish colour, particularly under water. Instead of shoots, they have small pliant branches, and the leaves are fastened to each other in such a manner, that by taking hold of a few leaves and pulling, you may draw from the bottom of the sea a long string of herbs fastened together. It is usually found on the surface of the water, and at low water may be seen very well, particularly where it is not deep, and at first sight appears like heaps of weed, carried along by the current. It is of a darkish green, sometimes approaching to the colour of dried roses; its taste is insipid and a little bitter, which is only perceived on chewing. According to Doctor Lardizobal, who has written a dissertation on this plant, it is diuretic and antiscorbutic.

[*Sargento Mayor.*—A major.]

[*Sarsaparilla.*—See *Zarsaparilla.*]

Sasafras, or *Salsifras.* (*Laurus Sasafras.*)—A plant of the laurel species, whose flowers hang in bunches, and are divided into five parts, and are succeeded by berries like those of the laurel. The leaves are tricleft, like those of the fig-tree, green on the upper side and white under. The stem is naked, straight and short, and the branches shoot upwards, like those of the fir-tree. The root is of a pale red colour, very light, porous, with a mixture of bitter and sweet aromatic taste, like the iris. This root possesses the same virtues, though in a less degree, with the sarsaparilla, and is therefore a cleansing sudorific, tonic, and diuretic, and very efficacious in rheumatic and arthritic pains, in cachexies, scurvy, asthma, and cutaneous diseases. It fortifies the stomach, and is given in a light decoction of from two drachms to half an ounce, and in powders, from a scruple to a drachm; but it is seldom prescribed in the latter form. The bark is preferable to the wood.

[*Savila*, or rather *Sabina.*—The savine tree.]

[*Seal.*—The seal, of which there are several species, is an amphibious animal, living the greater part of the time in the sea, and feeds on marine plants. These animals formerly frequented the *n.* shores; but at present have nearly forsaken them.]

[*Seiba*, or *Cotton-tree.*—Is the largest of all the vegetable productions of St. Domingo; and the lightest and most sizeable canoes are made of its trunk. It affords a species of down that resembles cotton of a short staple, and is used by the Spaniards for beds; it has also been tried with success in the making of hats.]

Seña.—A leaden coin with a particular mark or seal, which the owners of the pulperias, or chandler's shops, give for adjusting the payment of any trifling sum, and is received by them for the same purpose; on which account each pulpero has about five or six of them, to supply the want of maravedies, quartos, and ochavos.

Sensitiva.—See *Vergonzosa.*

Separatists.—A sect in England, composed of those who differ from the established church in some particular.

[*Serpents.*—The rattle-snake, (*Crotalus horridus*), is the largest serpent yet known to exist in N. America. They are from four to upwards of six feet in length, and from four to six inches in diameter. Formerly, it is said, they were much larger. Their rattles consist of several articulated, crustaceous, or rather horny bags, forming their tails, which, when they move, make a rattling noise, warning people of their approach. It is said, they will not attack a person unless previously provoked. When molested or irritated, they erect their rattles, and by intervals give the warning alarm. If pursued and overtaken, they instantly throw themselves into the spiral coil; their whole body swells through rage, continually rising and falling like a bellows; their beautiful particoloured skin becomes speckled and rough by dilatation; their head and neck are flattened, their cheeks swollen, and their lips constricted, discovering their fatal fangs; their eyes red as burning coals, and their brandishing forked tongues of the colour of the hottest flame, menace a horrid death. They never strike unless sure of their mark. They are supposed to have the power of fascination in an eminent degree; and it is generally believed that they charm birds, rabbits, squirrels, and other animals, in such a manner as that they lose the power of resistance, and flutter and move slowly, but reluctantly, towards the yawning jaws of their devourers, and either creep into their mouths, or lie down and suffer themselves to be taken and swallowed. This dreaded reptile is easily killed. One well-directed stroke on the head or across the back with a stick not larger than a man's thumb, is sufficient to kill the largest; and they are so slow of motion that they cannot make their escape, nor do they attempt it when attacked. Many different remedies for the bite of a rattle-snake have been prescribed and used with different success; the following, received from good authority, is recommended as a cure for the bite of all venomous snakes: "Bind a ligature tight round the leg or thigh, above the part bitten, so as to interrupt the circulation; then open or scarify the wound with a lancet, knife, or flint, and suck the wound or let a friend do it, then rub it with any unctuous matter, either animal or vegetable; or if that cannot be procured, make use of salt. Take care to keep the bowels open and free by drinking sweet oil and milk or cream. If pure honey be at hand apply it to the wound, after opening and sucking it, in preference to any other thing, and eat plentifully of honey and milk."

The bastard rattle-snake is of the nature of the asp or adder of the *e.* continent; in form and colour they resemble the rattle-snake; are eight or ten inches long, and very spiteful and venomous. Like the rattle-snake they throw themselves into a coil, swell and flatten their bodies, continually darting out their heads, and seem capable of springing beyond their length. Found in the S. States.

The moccasin-snake is from three to five feet in length, and as thick as a man's leg. When disturbed by an enemy they throw themselves into a coil, and then gradually raise their upper jaw till it falls back, nearly touching the neck, at the same time vibrating their long purple forked tongue, and directing their crooked poisonous fangs towards their enemy. In this attitude the creature has a most terrifying appearance. It is said their bite is incurable; but the probability is, that it is not. Like the rattle-snake they are slow in their motion, and never bite a person unless provoked. Found in abundance in the swamps and low grounds in the S. States.

The other moccasin-snake is about five or six feet long, and as thick as a man's arm, of a pale grey sky-coloured ground, with brown undulatory ringlets. They are said not to be venomous, have no poisonous fangs, are very swift and active, and flee from an enemy. Found in the S. States, and supposed to be a species of the wampum snake of Pennsylvania, if not the same snake, though larger and deeper coloured.

The black snake is of various lengths from three to six feet, all over of a shining black; it is not venomous; is useful in destroying rats, and pursues its prey with wonderful agility. It is said that it will destroy the rattle-snake by twisting round it and whipping it to death. It has been reported also that they have sometimes twined themselves round the bodies of children, squeezing them till they die. They are found in all the States.

The coach-whip snake is of various and beautiful colours, some parts brown, or chocolate, others black and others white; it is six or seven feet long, and very slender and active; it runs swiftly, and is quite inoffensive; but the Indians imagine that it is able to cut a man in two with a jerk of its tail. Like the black snake, it will run upon its tail, with his head and body erect.

The pine or bull-snake, called also the horn-snake, is the largest of the serpent kind known in N. America, except the rattle-snake, and perhaps exceeds him in length. They are pied, black and white; are inoffensive with respect to mankind, but devour squirrels, rabbits, and every other creature]

[they can take as food. Their tails terminate with a hard horny spur, which they vibrate very quick when disturbed, but they never attempt to strike with it. They have dens in the earth to which they retreat in time of danger.

The glass-snake has a very small head; the upper part of its body is of a colour blended brown and green, most regularly and elegantly spotted with yellow. Its skin is very smooth and shining, with small scales, more closely connected than those of other serpents, and of a different structure. A small blow with a stick will separate the body, not only at the place struck, but at two or three other places, the muscles being articulated in a singular manner quite through to the vertebra. They appear earlier in the spring than any other serpent, and are numerous in the sandy woods of the Carolinas and Georgia, and harmless.

The joint-snake, if we may credit Carver's account of it, is a great curiosity. Its skin is as hard as parchment, and as smooth as glass. It is beautifully streaked with black and white. It is so stiff, and has so few joints, and those so unyielding, that it can hardly bend itself into the form of a hoop. When it is struck it breaks like a pipe stem; and you may, with a whip, break it from the tail to the bowels into pieces not an inch long, and not produce the least tincture of blood. It is not venomous.

The two-headed snake has generally been considered as a monstrous production. We are disposed to believe, however, that it is a distinct species of serpents. Some few have been found in different parts of the United States. One of these was about eight inches long, and both heads, as to every outward appearance, were equally perfect, and branching out from the neck at an acute angle.

The snakes are not so numerous nor so venomous in the N. as in the S. States. In the latter, however, the inhabitants are furnished with a much greater variety of plants and herbs, which afford immediate relief to persons bitten by these venomous creatures. It is an observation worthy of perpetual and grateful remembrance, that, wherever venomous animals are found, the God of nature has kindly provided sufficient antidotes against their poison.]

[*Serrania.*—A mountainous country.]

[*Shrew Mouse.*—This is the smallest of quadrupeds, and holds nearly the same place among them as the humming bird does among the feathered race. Some of the European shrew mice are three inches long; we have seen but two or three of the American, and those dried; but should not judge that those ever exceeded two inches. Their head, which constitutes about one third of their whole length, has some resemblance to that of a mole; the ears are wanting; their eyes scarcely visible; the nose very long, pointed, and furnished with long hairs. In other respects these resemble the common mouse. They live in woods, and are supposed to feed on grain and insects. Found in New England.]

Sierpe Volante, or *Flying Snake.* (*Coluber Jaculatrix.*)—A snake peculiar to the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, where it is with great reason more feared than any other. It is about three palms in length, slender, of a dark colour, and very venomous. The vulgar persuade themselves that it has hidden wings, which it expands when it wishes to fly; but its flight is nothing more than a contraction of the body, and flying off like an arrow, taking incredible large jumps. This snake is the Chinchinton of Guatemala.

[*Sierra.*—A craggy chain of mountains, so called from the tops resembling so many teeth of a saw.]

[*Silvestre.*—Wild.]

[*Simarauba.*—A beautiful tree of the Island of St. Domingo. Its leaves are numerous and alternate, their upper surface of a deep green, the under part white. Its flowers are yellow, and placed on spikes beautifully branched. Its properties are antiseptic and febrifuge, but it does not enter into the materia medica of the island.]

Siote.—A singing bird in the new kingdom of Granada. It is small, of a black colour, with feathers tipped with a bright yellow, and has a sweet note.

[*Skunk.*—This animal is about a foot and a half long, of a moderate height and size. His tail is long and bushy; his hair long and chiefly black; but on his head, neck, and back, is found more or less of white, without any regularity or uniformity. He appears to see but indifferently when the sun shines; and therefore in the day-time keeps close to his burrow. As soon as the twilight commences,

he goes in quest of his food, which is principally beetles and other insects; he is also very fond of eggs and young chickens. His flesh is said to be tolerably good, and his fat is sometimes used as an emollient. But what renders this animal remarkable is, his being furnished with organs for secreting and retaining a liquor, volatile and fœtid beyond any thing known, and which he has the power of emitting to the distance of a rod or more, when necessary for his defence. When this ammunition is expended he is quite harmless. This volatile fœtor is a powerful antispasmodic. Found in all the States.

Another stinkard, called the squash, is said by Buffon to be found in some of the S. States. He is of a chesnut colour, climbs trees, and kills poultry.

Concerning the American skunk, Dr. Mitchell, in a letter to Dr. Post, 1788, writes thus; "Not long since I had an opportunity to dissect the American skunk (*Viverra putorius*, Linn.) The most remarkable appearances, on examination, were the following: the skin was exceedingly lax, insomuch that when pulled away from the subjacent membrane, the hairs, in many places drawn through it, were left rooted in the fat; the urine possessed no more fœter than is common to that excrementitious fluid in many other animals: but the peculiar odoriferous substance, which the creature emits when pursued, proceeds from two sacks, each capable of containing about half an ounce, situated at the extremity of the *intestinum rectum*, and surrounded by large and strong circular muscles, which contracting by a voluntary exertion, force out the thick yellowish liquor through two ducts, opening near the verge of the anus. As the animal is neither swift nor strong, this seems to have been given it as a defence against its enemies, on whose approach the volatile matter is discharged with considerable force, and to no small distance. From its analogy to musk, ambergris, civet, and castor, I am strongly inclined to think it might be with advantage ranked among the antispasmodics of the materia medica, or classed with drugs in the shops of perfumers."]

[*Snake.*—See *Serpents*, also *Sierpe*, *Taya*, *Tigrilla*, &c.]

Soata.—A common dish in the city of Palma, in the new kingdom of Granada, and the ordinary breakfast of all classes of people. It is made of maize and leaves of uyama boiled.

Sopilote.—A name given in New Spain to the gallinazos.—See *Gallinazos.*

[*Squirrels.*—The fox squirrel. Of this animal there are several varieties, black, red, and grey. It is nearly twice as large as the common grey squirrel, and is found in the S. States, and is peculiar to this continent.

The grey squirrel of America does not agree exactly with that of Europe, but is generally considered as of the same species. Its name indicates its general colour; but some are black, and others black on the back, and grey on the sides. They make a nest of moss in a hollow tree, and here they deposit their provision of nuts and acorns; this is the place of their residence during the winter, and here they bring forth their young. Their summer house, which is built of sticks and leaves, is placed near the top of the tree. They sometimes migrate in considerable numbers. If in their course they meet with a river, each of them takes a shingle, piece of bark, or the like, and carries it to the water. Thus equipped, they embark, and erect their tails to the gentle breeze, which soon wafts them over in safety; but a sudden flaw of wind sometimes produces a destructive shipwreck. The greater part of the males of this species are found castrated.

A grey squirrel is found in Virginia, nearly twice as large as this. Whether it be the same, or a different species, is uncertain.

The red squirrel is less than the grey squirrel. It has a red list along its back, grey on its sides, and white under the belly. It differs in some respects from the common European squirrel; but M. de Buffon considers it as the same species. Its food is the same as that of the grey squirrel, except that it sometimes feeds on the seeds of the pine and other evergreens; hence it is sometimes called the pine squirrel, and is found farther to the *n.* than the grey squirrel. It spends part of its time on trees in quest of food; but considers its hole, under some rock or log, as its home.

The striped squirrel is still less than the last-mentioned. Its colour is red. It has a narrow stripe of black along its back: at the distance of about half an inch, on each side, is a stripe of white, bordered with very narrow stripes of black. Its belly is white. In the males, the colours are brighter and better defined than in the female. It is sometimes called a mouse squirrel, and ground squirrel, from its forming a burrow in loose ground. Linnæus confounds it with a striped mouse squirrel, found in the *n* of Asia; but that animal is represented as in some measure resembling the mouse; whereas this is a genuine

squirrel. In the summer it feeds on apples, peaches, and various kinds of fruit and seeds; and for its winter store lays up nuts, acorns, and grain. It sometimes ascends trees in quest of food, but always descends on the appearance of danger; nor does it feel secure but in its hole, a stone wall, or some covert place. Found in the N. and Middle States.

Flying squirrel. This is the least and most singular of the class of squirrels. A duplicature of the skin connects the fore and hinder legs together; by extending this membrane, it is able to leap much farther, and to alight with more safety than other squirrels. It lives in the holes of trees, and feeds on seeds. Is found in all the States.]

Suche. (*Plumeria.*)—An odoriferous yellow, consisting of five somewhat fleshy leaves, generally worn by ladies in Peru.

There is likewise a fish of the same name found in the Lake of Chucuito, and several others in Peru.

A sort of shell work with which the Indian women of the nation of Muzos, in the new kingdom of Granada, adorned their clothes. The garments which were ornamented with these shells, were the pledge presented by the husband to the bride in the act of marriage.

Suelda Consuelda. (*Amphisbana fuliginosa.*)—A snake with two heads, one at each end; a little more than a span in length, and of the thickness of a finger. It is of a black colour, and very singular on account of its peculiarity in uniting again, after it has been cut into several pieces; the parts attached to the head seeking the others, to which it applies a small herb. The method of killing them is to hang them in the smoke of the chimney till they are dry; and then bruising the body into a powder, and applying it in a plaster to a fractured bone, it unites it in a short time. This sovereign virtue has been established by frequent experiments in the kingdom of Tierra Firme.

Sustos.—See *Faldellin.*

T.

Tabacco. (*Nicotiana Tabacum.*)—A plant of the order pentandria monogynia. The corolla is shaped like a funnel, with a double edge. The fibres are inclined, and the capsule has two valves and two cells. It is also called queen's herb, because presented to Catharine de Medicis; and embassador's herb, because John Nicot, who then held that employment at Lisbon, first sent it in the year 1560. It was introduced into Spain soon after the discovery of America. There are several species; the stem of the first is five or six feet high, and about an inch thick, downy and full of white pith. The leaves are long and broad, without a stem, alternate, pellucid, and pointed, of a pale green colour, and glutinous to the touch. The root is white, fibrous, of an acrid taste, and the whole plant has a very strong smell. In Europe it is a summer plant, and grows like the other Nicotiana in July and August; but in America, it grows during the whole year. The plant lives 10 or 12 years, the seed retains its fecundity six, and the leaves preserve their full strength five years. The quantity produced in America is very great, particularly in the Antilles, and still more in the Islands of Cuba and St. Domingo; in Cumana, Virginia, Brasil, and several other provinces. The culture of this plant is prohibited in Spain and France, and only a few plants are permitted to grow in the gardens. It requires a rich, wet soil, open to the *s.* and well ploughed and manured. The first kind is generally used for snuff, fumigation, either in the pipe or cigar, and for different purposes in medicine. Some attribute to it an infinite number of virtues; and there are some who call it, the universal panacea, or remedy for all complaints; but the most skilful observers say no more than that it is a violent purge, which with the caustic and acrid purgative virtue, has a narcotic principle, which intoxicates, and a nauseous fetid smell, like the thorn-apple, nightshade, and other soporific herbs. On this account, they will not allow it ever to be given interiorly, not even in apoplexies, as some doctors have prescribed; for having a determinate action on the nerves, as being a narcotic, it would increase the evil. The custom of using the decoction of tobacco for injections, has also its opponents; and Mr. Chomel, in his Treatise on common Plants, says, that it is sometimes productive of fatal consequences. All are acquainted with tobacco in the state of snuff, to be taken up the nose, and as it excites a strong titillation on the pituitary membrane, it makes the glands with which this organ is filled contract, and facilitates an abundant evacuation of serous humours; and from this mechanism, it produces the same effects on the glands of the mouth when smoked or chewed, which makes those who smoke drink frequently. The

bad effects of immoderate smoking are very obvious, particularly in those who are of a bilious disposition; for, besides the contraction of the fibres, authors are full of instances of giddinesses and apoplexies, caused by the excessive use of tobacco in this way. Some people are so attached to it, that they would sooner forsake their bread, than be deprived of it. It is true that in every country labourers and the wretched use something to occupy their thoughts, and make their situation more supportable. For this reason, the Turks, who are forbidden by their law the use of any liquors, intoxicate themselves with opium. The leaves of the tobacco, whilst fresh, applied externally, are vulnerary and detensive, even in inveterate ulcers, which they finally heal. They ought to be applied after being pounded and steeped in wine, or in infusion or decoction of oil. The oil extracted from tobacco, by means of distillation, is very useful in curing the itch, but requires much prudence in the application, for the residue of the plant, after passing through the fire, retains in such a degree the narcotic virtue and acrimony, that, according to Redi, a few drops of this oil given to animals, or injected into their bodies, have caused death. A decoction of dried leaves is frequently used for the purpose of destroying lice in children; but it is preferable to make use of staphysagria, or delphinium platani folio, which has the same virtue unattended by any inconvenience. They likewise make from the juice of the tobacco, hydromel and oxymel simple, commonly distinguished by the name of nicotian sirrup, very serviceable in the humid asthma. The tobacco leaves enter into the compositions of vulnerary water, tranquil balsam, nicotian ungent, mundicative of ache, and the juice in the plaister of opodeldoc.

[*Tacamaca.*—See *Tacamahaca.*]

Tacamahaca. (*Populus Balsamifera.*)—A solid resin improperly called gum, for it is entirely dissolved in spirits of wine. It is a resinous substance, dry, and of a pungent smell. The tree which distils it, either naturally, or from an incision made in the bark, is called, arbor populo similis resinosa altera taca-mahaca foliis crenatis. It is very abundant in New Spain. The wood is resinous, the leaves small, round, and denticulated; the fruit of the size of a nut, of a red colour, resinous, and fragrant, and the stone is similar to that of the melocoton. There are two species of tacamahaca in the shops of apothecaries and druggists. The first, which is the best, and is commonly called tacamahaca sublime, was formerly preserved in small pumpkins, and is that which exudes spontaneously from the tree. This kind ought to be dry, transparent, and of a reddish colour, of a strong and agreeable smell, resembling water, labanda and ambar. The second is the most common, and is procured from incision. It is susceptible of various colours, according as the bark on which it happens to fall contains a greater or less quantity of dirt. The best of this kind is that which approaches nearest to the colour of the former. The tacamahaca ought seldom to be given interiorly, but is frequently applied externally to alleviate pains, particularly such as proceed from cold humours; it likewise collects and ripens tumours. When applied to the navel, it prevents histeric fits and suffocation in the womb. When laid on the stomach, it fortifies it and assists digestion; and a small patch on the temples alleviates the pain of the tooth-ache. It is likewise used in several compositions, as in the odoriferous cephalic plaster of Charas, and in the plaster of the stomachic diabotanum and fioravantis balsam.

Tache.—A delicious fish in the province of Coquimbo in the kingdom of Chile.

Tajibo.—A hard wood in the province of Paraguay.

Tamal, or *Pastel de hoja.*—A sort of pie made in S. America, of Indian wheat flour, in which they put pigeons, bacon, chickpeas, cayenne pepper, and other things, wrapped up in leaves, which are tied and covered with paste, and, boiled in a pot, make a very agreeable breakfast, taken by all classes of people.

Tamarindo. (*Tamarindus Indica.*)—A large bushy tufted tree, about the size of that of the walnut. The leaves are like the ash, but not quite so large, very hard and strong, and placed two by two on each side. The flowers are white, and united in bunches of eight or ten, like those of the orange. It generally flowers in August and September, during which months it likewise produces fruit, contained in a capsule three or four inches in length. The outer rind is of a moss colour, dry and brittle. It has also an interior rind, covered with a dark red pulp, interwoven with fibres, or small threads, and of an agreeable acid taste. This pulp is preserved in jars, and is taken in decoction or infusion, in the quantity of two or three ounces, and is very good in abating the acrimony of the bile, and the rising of the blood. For this reason it is given in acute fevers, jaundice, and burning in the stomach and bowels. It quenches thirst, prevents scurvy, and is a gentle purge.

Tambo.—A house or hut on the roads, where travellers sleep and dine, in the kingdom of Peru, which existed before the discovery of America, and were applied to the same purposes as the caravanseras in Turkey.

[*Tapia.*—A mortar, with which they cover their walls in S. America.]

[*Tapoyes.*—Close gowns, reaching down to the ground, worn by the women of the Chiquitos Indians in S. America.]

Taravita.—A strong thick rope tied to two trees on the opposite sides of a river, to which they attach, with two iron rings, a basket or box made of leather, which they draw with ropes from one side to the other, by means of horses. These baskets serve for conveying persons and all sorts of goods over the large rivers in the kingdom of Quito, which are too rapid for boats or bridges. There are taravitas over the rivers Guaitara, Juanambú, and several others, which the inhabitants of the nearest village take care of, and on this account they are free from tributes and contributions.

Tarai, or *Tamariz.*—A valuable wood in the new kingdom of Granada, greatly esteemed for the purpose of making vessels. It is likewise applied to the same use in Spain, and the water which has been in these vessels has a medicinal virtue.

Tasajo.—Slices of beef about four inches long, and dried in the sun. They are made into bundles a yard long, three quarters broad, and two deep, weighing about four arrobas. This is the usual food of the common people, and supplies ships with provisions.

[*Tasca.*—A much esteemed sort of shell-fish found in S. America, particularly in the river Chuapa, of the kingdom of Chile.]

[*Taspa.*—A species of the Jesuit's bark.]

Taya.—A snake which is very common in the new kingdom of Granada, and one of the most formidable, from its poison, fierceness, and agility. It is of a brown colour, with dark stripes, and is the only one which attacks man without being provoked.

Taye.—An animal which inhabits the woods in the province of California, in N. America. It is of the size of a calf of a year and a half old, and very similar to it. The head and hair are like those of the deer, and its horns very long and of the same nature with those of the sheep. The hoof is very large, round, and divided like that of the ox, the tail short, and the flesh very sweet and tender.

[*Tays.*—The Indian chief of the island of Nootka.]

Teanguis.—A name given in New Spain to the market-place.

Tecolate.—In New Spain the buho, or owl, is called by this name.

Tembladera.—A silver drinking vessel with two handles is called by this name in S. America; it has likewise the same appellation in Spain.

Tembladores.—See *Quacaros.*

Temepechin.—A delicious tender fish caught in the rivers of the department of Suchitepeque in New Spain.

Tente en el Ayre.—The children of a Quarteron and Quarterona, and of a Mulatto man or woman, are called by this name, because they make no advance towards a white colour either on the father or mother's side.

Tepeiscuntli.—A species of wild dog in the province of Tabasco in New Spain.

Tepexilote.—A small fruit in New Spain, called also coatecos. It resembles small hazle-nuts, is very hard, and made into beads, with inscriptions and words from the Magnificat, which last so long, that many have thought the words were thus naturally produced by the trees.

[*Tetrao lagopus.* The *Ptarmigan.*—Ordinarily inhabits the colder climates about Hudson's Bay, but is sometimes driven, through want of food, to the more *s.* latitudes. In the winter of 1788 these birds were taken plentifully about Quebec. Whenever the winter of the Arctic region sets in with rain, so as to cover the branches and leaves of trees with a glaze of ice, they are deprived of their food, and obliged to fly to the *s.* to a milder climate, where it can be procured. Hence they frequently visit

the United States. Their feathers are mostly white, covered with down quite to the nails, and their flesh black, and of an exquisite relish.

Probably this is a different bird from Bartram's mountain cock or grous, though both have the same Linnæan name.]

[*Tertrao minor, s. coturnix.*—The quail or partridge. This bird is the quail of New England, and the partridge of the S. States; but is properly neither. It is a bird peculiar to America. The partridge of New England (*tetrao tympanus*) is the pheasant of Pennsylvania, but is miscalled in both places. It is a species of the grous. Neither the pheasant, partridge, or quail, are found in America.]

Tigrilla.—A snake which has obtained this name from the similarity between the spots on its skin and those of the tiger. These spots are for the most part of a rhomboidal figure, joined at the angles, and make a sort of chain of a dark colour on a white ground. In the country of the Amazonas, they are very abundant, and are venomous and formidable.

Tinajero.—A sort of press, a yard broad and two yards high, made with small ornamented pillars of valuable wood, in order that the air may pass through every quarter. It is divided crosswise into three parts. The bottom one contains a red earthern jar, which receives the water filtrated from a stone, in shape of a crucible, and from a pumice-stone on the second stage, to which it passes, distilled from another stone of the same nature, in the shape of a trough, on the first stage, into which the water for filtration is poured. The second and third stories are set around with tables of the same wood, half a span in breadth, on which they place alcarazas, and vessels of various makes, filled with water, and pots with flowers and sweet-scented herbs. In Carthagena a window in the hall which is near the stairs, and made in the same manner with that mentioned, supplies the place of the press.

Tipa.—A large tree, the wood of which is very strong and greatly esteemed: it grows in the province of Tucuman in the kingdom of Peru.

Tiradera.—A sort of dart, made of very light small sticks pointed, which the Moscas Indians, before the conquest, threw from the hand with great force and dexterity.

Titi.—A generical term, signifying little, applied in America to all the small monkies. Their species are innumerable, and are distinguished by their shape, colour, and dispositions.

There is also a little delicious fish in the river Chagre which bears this name. It is about as large as a common pin, and so abundant in the season, that if you put a basket into the water you may draw it out full. It is fried, and preserved a long time in flasks, and eaten in omelets. It is probably the young of some larger fish.

[*Tobacco.*—See *Tabacco.*]

Toche.—A small bird of a black and yellow colour, in the new kingdom of Granada, greatly esteemed for its sweet and soft note.

[*Tollo.*—A species of cod-fish, found in S. America.]

Tolu. (*Tolvifera Balsamum.*)—A balsam so called, because produced in the town of this name in the new kingdom of Granada. It is a resinous, dry, solid gum of a bright yellow colour. It is of an agreeable scent and good taste, in which last particular it differs from other balsams, which are sour and bitter. It is procured by incision from a tree resembling the small fir, whose leaves are always green. This balsam is greatly esteemed, and is brought into Europe in small cocoa-nut shells, about the size of a lemon, and possesses the same virtues as the balsam of Gilead. In the pharmacopœia of London it enters into the composition of balsams; but its principal virtue consists in curing the greatest wounds with wonderful celerity, of which we have witnessed frequent proofs.

[*Toqui.*—The highest of the three orders of nobility of the Araucanian State.]

Tortuga. (*Testudo Mydas.*)—This species is distinguished from the land tortoise by its size, deformity, and feet, which are adapted for swimming, and resemble the fins of a fish. The Indians take them in great quantities. For this purpose they wait till they come out to lay their eggs in the sand, and then going on one side, turn them on their backs without a possibility of their being able to rectify themselves, on account of the flatness of their shell. They are from two to four feet long, two or three broad, and some weigh 400 pounds. One of these tortoises lays 300 eggs of the size of a hand

ball, round, and of a yellow colour. The shell is like wet parchment, and there is always a white substance, which never grows hard, but the yelk after boiling is like that of a hen's egg, and very good. The green tortoise is the only one which is brought to table, and its shell is very thin and of no value. It feeds on grass which grows at the bottom of the sea where it is shallow, and in a calm quiet sea they may be seen pasturing at the bottom. There is so much flesh on a tortoise, that 80 persons may dine on one, and the flesh is as good as veal. When it is raw, the flesh is mixed with a fat substance, which after being boiled, assumes a greenish yellow colour. The proper time for catching tortoises is during the months of February, March, April, and May. They sometimes turn them on their backs with the oar, when they are swimming on the surface of the water. The best part of the tortoise is that called kalpe, or calapee, left in the shell and steeped during a night in the juice of lemon, and baked in the oven in the shell, with a sauce made of the fat and entrails. There are several species of tortoises, which differ little from each other. See *Carey*.

Toto.—A small bird in the province of Chiapa in the kingdom of Guatemala. It is something less than a pigeon, and of a yellow colour; but the feathers of the wings are of a beautiful green, and so highly esteemed by the Indians as an ornament in their dress, which they interweave very curiously, that they frequently catch the bird for no other purpose than to rob it of those feathers, and let it go that it may produce more, and it is reckoned a capital crime to destroy one.

Totŏra. (*Ipha Latifolia*.)—A sort of cat's tail growing in the lake of Chucuito in the kingdom of Peru, and is in some parts a yard and a half high. It is generally so dense that it is necessary to open a way through with the hands. Of this the Indians make a sort of raft, on which they sail, and bring to land their flocks and fruits.

Trillis. (*Turdus Plumbeus*.)—A species of thrush in the kingdom of Chile, where it is properly called thili or Chile. The colour of the female is ash, but the male entirely black, except a beautiful yellow spot under the wings. Its make is the same with that of the common thrush, with the exception of the tail, which is in the shape of a wedge. It makes its nest of mud, like most of its species, in trees near rivers; and never lays more than three eggs. Its note is sweet, harmonious, and constant, but it is impossible to keep them in a cage; their flesh exhales a disagreeable smell; and as these two circumstances make them little sought after, they are extremely abundant.

[*Trochilus Colubris*.—The *humming bird;* is the smallest of all the feathered inhabitants of N. America. Its plumage surpasses description. On its head is a small tuft of jetty black; its breast is red; its belly white; its back, wings, and tail of the finest pale green; small specks of gold are scattered over it with inexpressible grace; and to crown the whole, an almost imperceptible down softens the several colours, and produces the most pleasing shades.]

Trompetero. (*Hidrocoras*.)—A bird which is called by this name because it imitates the sound of a trumpet, according to the common opinion, not by its voice but by the anus, having for this purpose a sort of bellows, with two conduits, one for the admission and the other for the expulsion of air. It is entirely black, of the size of a cock, and nearly of the same shape. The feathers of the neck are streaked with yellow. This bird may be tamed, and will follow its master, sounding its trumpet; its flesh is very good eating.

Tropico. (*Phaeton Æthereus*.)—A bird which inhabits the torrid zone, or space between the tropics. Father Labat says, it is of the size of a pigeon; the head small and well shaped, the bill three inches long, thick, strong, pointed, and a little bent, denticulated, and of a red colour. The feet are likewise red, webbed, and the four toes united by one membrane. The length and breadth of the wings bear a just proportion to the size of the body. The plumage is white, diversified with a few black spots; the tail consists of from 12 to 15 feathers, from the middle of which there proceed two of 15 or 16 inches long, which seem united. Its cry is shrill; it flies with great ease, and soars as high as the bird called fragrota, or frigate, but its flight is slow. It rests on the water like a duck, feeds on fish, and lays and brings up its young on desert islands. The Indians esteem very much the long feathers in the tail, with which they adorn their heads, and thrust them through the cartilage of the nose, to resemble mustachoes.

[*Tuatua*.—A plant found in S. America, with qualities more purgative than jalap.]

Tuca.—See *Tulcan*.

[*Tucuragua.*—A plant of S. America, which has a fine smell, but, being eaten, causes fevers.]

Tucuyo.—A cotton cloth of a coarse texture, manufactured in the provinces in the kingdom of Quito and Peru. It is the common clothing of the lower class of people, and for this reason the consumption is very great, and a considerable trade is carried on in this line.

Tulcan. (*Rhamphastos Tucanus.*)—A bird very remarkable for the excessive size of its beak, which is twice as large as its body. The bill is eight inches long, the upper mandible broad, and a little bent with a cavity exactly equal to the lower, and of a red, black and yellow colour. The tongue is like a very thin feather, and has been said to be very efficacious in several complaints, particularly the water in which the tongue has been steeped has a very good effect in the falling sickness. The head, neck, shoulders, and wings are of a whitish colour, the breast of a silver, with profiles of vermilion, and the other parts black. It is very common in every part of America, and bears a variety of names in the different provinces. In Peru it is called predicador; in Tierra Firme, pico feo; in New Spain, pito real; in the new kingdom of Granada, guazale; in the country of the Amazonas, tulcan; and in Guayana, tuca. It is in some places called predicador, or preacher, because in its actions and gestures it imitates a person preaching, taking short majestic strides; its flesh is very good.

Turicha.—A bird in the province of Piritu in the new kingdom of Granada. It is something smaller than the thrush; the wings and breast are black and white, and the rest of the body yellow. It is easily tamed, comes to the hand and accompanies its master at table. It sings much, and will fight with the cock.

[*Turkey Stone.*—See *Turquesa.*]

Turma.—A root which is very common in every part of America, resembling the yuca, and eaten roasted.

Turpial.—The same as *Turicha.*

Turquesa.—A precious stone found in the new kingdom of Granada. According to naturalists it is nothing more than the bones of animals laid near some copper mine, which imparts to them a beautiful blue colour.

Tutuma. (*Crescentia Cujete.*)—A sort of pumpkin very abundant in America, which cut in the middle, and the seeds and inside being taken out, and the skin dried, makes two segments, usually a foot in diameter, and three lines thick; they are likewise called tutumas.

[*Two-headed Snake.*—See *Serpents.*]

V, U.

Vaca-Marina.—See *Manati.*

Vandurria.—A bird in the kingdom of Chile. In Peru it is called canelon. See *Canelon.*

[*Vanilla.*—See *Bainilla.*]

[*Vara.*—A Spanish yard measure of 33 inches; 108 varas are equal to 100 yards English; and 140 to 100 English ells. Flemish ells multiply by 80, and divide by 100 to make Spanish varas. All piece goods measured are sold by this vara in S. America. The castilian vara, according to the classical work of M. Ciscar (Sobre los nuevos pesos y medidas decimales), is to the toise = 0,5130: 1,1963, and a toise = 2,3316 varas. Don Jorge Juan estimated a Castilian vara at three feet of Burgos, and every foot of Burgos contains 123 lines two thirds of the pied du roi. The court of Madrid ordered in 1783 the corps of sea artillery to make use of the measure of varas, and the corps of land artillery the French toise, a difference of which it would be difficult to point out the utility. Compendio de Matematicas de Don Francisco Xavier Rovira, tom. iv. p. 57 and 63. The Mexican vara is equal to 0 m, 839.]

[*Vatipa.*—The devil, or the great spirit amongst the Indians of Guayana.]

[*Vaynilla.*—See *Bainilla.*]

Ubaque.—A name given in Santa Fé, capital of the kingdom of Granada, to the south wind, because it proceeds from a town of this name, situate in that direction, on the top of a mountain. It is sharp,

cold and wholesome, and the natives say it should be received with open mouth, and that the mouth should be carefully shut when the north wind blows, because it is there tempestuous, damp and unwholesome.

Vergonzosa. (*Mimosa Pudica.*)—A genus of the class polygamia monœcia. The calyx consists of five dentals, and the corolla of an equal number of segments, with a few more threads and a pistile. The fruit is long and full of seeds. There are 43 species, all peculiar to America; it is likewise called the sensitive plant, from the singular property of contracting its leaves and branches on being touched. This movement is produced by three different bendings of each leaf to the branch, and the branch to the body of the tree. In the first place the leaf bends on one side, or doubles, and next bends to the branch; and if the touch is sufficiently strong, the branch bends to the trunk of the tree, which is then of a cylindrical form. Some have endeavoured to explain this phenomenon on mechanical principles, but without success; and some assert that this contraction does not take place when it is touched by an irrational creature. In several provinces it is called, cierrate, cierrate, or shut thyself, shut thyself.

Vicuña. (*Camelus Vicuña.*)—According to Count Buffon, it is the wild paco, or the paco in its free, natural state; but this is a mistake, for the vicuña, paco, and alpaca are animals of the same genus, but of different species; for although they inhabit the same mountains, they are never found in each other's company. It is about the size of the goat, to which it bears a great resemblance in the shape of its shoulder, hoofs, and tail, but differs from it in the neck, which is 20 inches long; in its head, which is round and destitute of horns; in the smallness of its ears, which are straight and pricked; in the snout, which is short and without beard; and in its legs, which are twice as long as those of the goat; the body is covered with a very fine wool, of the colour of dried roses, capable of receiving very well all kinds of artificial dyes, and in the provinces of Peru is made into pocket handkerchiefs, gloves, hats, &c. This wool is now well known, and greatly esteemed in Europe, and is made into very fine cloth. The vicuñas are very abundant in the cordillera of the Andes, and live on the most steep, craggy parts of those mountains; and instead of receiving any injury from rain and snow, they, on the contrary, seem to derive much benefit from them; for if they be brought into the plains, they very soon grow lean, and are covered with a sort of ring-worm, which kills them in a short time. Hence it happens, that they have not been able to establish them in any part of Europe. They feed in flocks, like goats, and they no sooner see a man than they escape with great velocity, driving their young before them. The hunters join in large bodies, and surround some hill on which they are known to feed, and following them gently, they drive them towards some narrow passage, over which they have previously drawn a rope, on which they hang bunches of old rags: as soon as the vicuñas, which are naturally timid, see these, they are so frightened, that not daring to proceed any further, and huddling together, they permit the hunters to catch, sheer, and kill them. Notwithsanding the great numbers which are daily killed for the sake of the meat, which is excellent, from the time of the conquest of America, their abundance is such, that it is probable they must have more than one at each birth. It is reported, that a slice of the flesh is an effective remedy for an inflammation of the eyes. There are found in their stomachs very fine bezoar stones. This is one of the species not yet fully determined.

Vijao. (*Musa Bihai.*)—A very common plant with leaves a yard long, and half a yard broad, which serve to wrap up parcels instead of paper. After they have been dried, a little wet makes them produce white spots, which afterwards turn into powder, and is said to be very injurious to the lungs.

Vira-vira. (*Gnaphalium Viravira.*)—A sort of house-leek of great aromatic virtue, and very beneficial in intermittent fevers. When taken in decoction, like tea, it produces very copious perspiration, and on this account is much used in colds. The leaves are so very hairy, that to the sight and touch they appear covered with cotton. The flowers, which never exceed four in number, consist of filaments of a gold colour, and are situated at the tops of the branches; the seeds are like those of the stoechas citrina.

Viruli.—A small cane, like those generally used for walking-sticks, of the thickness of the little finger and very smooth and light, of which the natives of Darien make arrows.

Vizcacha. (*Lepus Brasiliensis, Marcg.*)—A small animal in Peru, resembling the hare, whose tail is as long as that of the cat. It is very tame, covered with hair as soft as silk, of a white and ash colour,

and inhabits the mountains covered with snow. In the time of the Incas the Indians spun the hair, and made of it very beautiful cloth.

[*Ulmen.*—The chief person of every village or tribe of the Aracanians.]

Umiri.—A large tree, in the province of Pará, greatly esteemed for the beauty of its wood, and a sweet-scented balsam which it distils.

[*Volo.*—A bird found in S. America.]

Vomito Negro.—An endemical disease in the sea-ports and hot parts of America. It is of a putrid nature, inasmuch as it dissolves and corrupts the blood: it generally attacks Europeans who have lately arrived; and has sometimes been so destructive that the galleons have been obliged to remain at Portovelo during the winter, nearly the whole of their crew having been swept off by this disease. The same has happened at Vera Cruz, Caracas and Carthagena, for at that time very few survived it, but it is now cured like any other disease. Some attribute the good effects which are experienced at Havannah to the use of wine. This disease did not make its appearance from the time of the conquest till the year 1730, when it began to commit its ravages in the Custom-House cutters, under the command of Don Domingo Justiniani, and in Guayaquil in 1740. Amongst the numerous observations which have been made on the symptoms of this evil, it has been remarked, that whoever escapes the first time he goes to America, is never afterwards attacked by it. Dr. Don Joseph de Gastelbando, a Mulatto doctor in Carthagena, was the first in this country who wrote on and published the manner of curing this disease, in the year 1754.

[*Urchin.*—An animal of N. America. The urchin, or urson, is about two feet in length, and when fat the same in circumference. He is commonly called hedge-hog or porcupine, but differs from both those animals in every characteristic mark, excepting his being armed with quills on his back and sides. These quills are nearly as large as a wheat straw, from three to four inches long; and, unless erected, nearly covered by the animal's hair. Their points are very hard, and filled with innumerable very small barbs or scales, whose points are raised from the body of the quill. When the urchin is attacked by a dog, wolf, or other beast of prey, he throws himself into a posture of defence by shortening his body, elevating his back, and erecting his quills. The assailant soon finds some of those weapons stuck into his mouth, or other part of his body, and every effort which he makes to free himself causes them to penetrate the farther; they have been known to bury themselves entirely in a few minutes. Sometimes they prove fatal; at other times they make their way out again through the skin from various parts of the body. If not molested, the urchin is an inoffensive animal: he finds a hole or hollow, which he makes his residence, and feeds on the bark and roots of vegetables: his flesh, in the opinion of hunters, is equal to that of a sucking pig. It is found in the N. States.]

Urundei.—A large tree in the province of Paraguay, whose wood is very strong and valuable.

Uta.—A butterfly in Paraguay, which bites like the mosquitos, and leaves in the wound a sort of gum, which corrupts the part affected, and produces a little grub; and although the insect be drawn out, it leaves a wound, which increases daily, and requires a very long time to effect a cure.

Uyama.—A sort of pumpkin in the province of Guayana.

W.

[*Wakon.*—A bird of N. America; it is probably of the same species with the bird of Paradise, and receives its name from the ideas the Indians have of its superior excellence; the wakon bird being in their language the bird of the Great Spirit. It is nearly the size of a swallow, of a brown colour, shaded about the neck with a bright green: the wings are of a darker brown than the body; its tail is composed of four or five feathers, which are three times as long as its body, and which are beautifully shaded with green and purple. It carries this fine length of plumage in the same manner as the peacock does his, but it is not known whether, like him, it ever raises it to an erect position.]

[*Weasel.*—An animal of N. America, about nine inches in length; his body is remarkably round and slender; his tail long and well furnished with hair; his legs very short, and his toes armed with harp claws: his hair is short and thick, and of a pale yellowish colour, except about the breast, where

it is white. This is a very sprightly animal; notwithstanding the shortness of its legs, it seems to dart rather than to run. He kills and eats rats, striped squirrels, and other small quadrupeds: he likewise kills fowls, sucks their blood, and esteems their eggs a delicacy.

[*Wewakish.*—A very large stag, found in N. America.]

[*Whetsaw.*—A bird of N. America, of the cuckow kind, being, like that, a solitary bird, and scarcely ever seen. In the summer months it is heard in the groves, where it makes a noise like the filing of a saw, from which circumstance it has received its name.—*Carver.*]

[*Wolf.*—Of this animal, which is of the dog kind, or rather of the dog himself in his savage state, there are great numbers in N. America, and a considerable variety in size and colour. The colour of these animals in the N. States is generally a light dirty sallow, with a list of black along their back. In some the black is extended down their sides, and sometimes forms waving streaks; others are said to be spotted: some of them, particularly in the S. States, are entirely black, and considerably smaller. The Indians are said to have so far tamed some of these animals before their acquaintance with the Europeans, as to have used them in hunting. They next made use of European dogs, and afterwards of mongrels, the offspring of the wolf and dog, as being more docile than the former, and more eager in the chase than the latter. The appearance of many of the dogs, in the newly-settled parts of the country, indicate their relation to the wolf. Found in all the States.]

[*Wolverene.*—Called in Canada the carcajou, and by hunters the beaver eater, seems to be a grade between the bear and the woodchuck. He agrees exactly with the badger of Europe: his length is $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet and upwards; his circumference nearly two feet; his head and ears resemble a woodchuck's; his legs short; feet and paws large and strong; tail about seven inches long, black, and very bushy or shaggy; hair about two inches long, and very coarse; his head, sallow grey; back almost black; breast, spotted with white; belly, dark brown; sides and rump, light reddish brown. This animal lives in holes, cannot run fast, and has a clumsy appearance. He is very mischievous to hunters, following them when setting their traps, and destroying their game, particularly the beaver. Found in the N. States of America.]

[*Woodchuck.* (*Monax*, de Buffon.)—An animal of N. America. His body is about 16 inches long, and nearly the same in circumference; his tail is moderately long, and full of hair: his colour is a mixture of sallow and grey: he digs a burrow in or near some cultivated field, and feeds on pulse, the tops of cultivated clover, &c.: he is generally very fat, excepting in the spring. The young are good meat; the old are rather rank and disagreeable. In the beginning of October they retire to their burrows, and live in a torpid state about six months. In many respects he agrees with the marmot of the Alps; in others he differs, and on the whole is probably not the same.

An animal resembling the woodchuck is found in the S. States, which is supposed to form another species.]

[*Wood Rat.*—'This is a very curious animal, not half the size of the domestic rat, of a dark brown or black colour; their tails slender and short in proportion, and covered thinly with short hair: they are singular with respect to their ingenuity and great labour in constructing their habitations, which are conical pyramids, about three or four feet high, formed of dry branches, which they collect with great labour and perseverance, and pile up without any apparent order; yet they are so interwoven with one another, that it would take a bear or wild cat some time to pull one of these castles to pieces, and allow the animals sufficient time to retreat with their young. Habitat in N. America.

'There is likewise a ground rat, twice as large as the common rat, which burrows in the ground.' —*Bartram's Travels.*]

X.

Xacal, or *Xacale.*—The cottage of an Indian, is so called in New Spain.

Xaguei.—An artificial well, made in a field, to catch rain water.

Xicara.—A name given in New Spain to a sort of pumpkin, which they use for chocolate cups.

Xuchicopál.—A large tree, whose wood is very hard and valuable. It grows in the province of Vera Paz, in the kingdom of Guatemala, and yields spontaneously an odoriferous gum or resin.

Y.

Yacumama.—A name given in the province of the Amazonas to the buho.—See *Buho.*

Yanacona.—Or more properly Yanacuna. A name given in Peru to those Indians who are destined for personal attendance.

Yerba de Mate.—See the following article.

Yerba del Parasuay. (*Cagsire Paraguay.*)—The leaf of an odoriferous shrub, of which there is an incredible consumption throughout the kingdom of Peru, being the herb of which they make their mate. It has obtained the name of Paraguay from the province of that name, which is the only part in America where it grows, and it enjoys a very considerable commerce in this article. The trees which form very thick woods are more than 100 leagues from the capital, and in the midst of infidel warlike Indians, yet they never fail to go and pluck the leaves. The neighbouring people are all engaged in this lucrative commerce and employment, which consists in laying the leaves on plates to be dried by fire, and in rubbing them with the hands till they are nearly as small as steel-filings; and without any further preparation they pack it up in bags, of seven or eight arrobas, to send it to Peru and Chile, embarking it on the river Paraguay and la Plata, for Buenos Ayres. According to the cosmographer, Don Casme Bueno, the quantity gathered annually exceeds 12,000 arrobas. The herb is of two kinds; one which is the most tender part of the leaf, and falls off first, which is the finest and most esteemed, and is called camini: the other contains the fibres and stalks of the leaves, and is somewhat coarser, and is called yerba de palos, or the herb with sticks. Whoever has been in Peru, and has observed the continual use of the mate, is alone competent to judge of the riches which must have accrued, and daily do accrue to the province of Paraguay from this commodity, even allowing it to be sold at the low price of six piastres each arroba.

[*Yeso.*— Gypsum.]

Yuca. (*Tatropha Manihot.*)—A plant of the monœcia order. It is very large, with branches and a pointed broad leaf: the root is the most useful of any found in America, and grows moderately in temperate, and to profusion in hot, climates; the root is white, and of two kinds, distinguished by the epithets of sweet and bitter. The former is eaten boiled or roasted; but the latter, which is the most useful, is made into a sort of cakes, as red cazabe, which is almost the only bread used in every part of America, and for its good taste is preferred by many Europeans to wheaten bread. They also make of it a sort of starch, of excellent quality, which is in general use in America.

[*Yucal.*—See *Yuca.*]

Z.

Zambo.—The offspring of a black man and mulatto woman, or *vice versa*, which is the most despicable class, on account of their general depravity of manners. When the offspring is of an Indian man and negro woman, or a negro man and Indian woman, it is called zambo de Indio. The latter in New Spain is called cambujo.

Zancudo.—A sort of gnat with very long shanks, whose bite is very painful. It is very common, and extremely troublesome.

Zapayo.—A general term for several species of pumpkins, particularly one large red kind, which is the usual food of the common people when boiled with butter and sugar.

Zapote. (*Achras Sapote.*)—A round fruit, five inches in diameter, whose rind is soft and of a straw colour. The pulp is yellow, resembling that of a peach, with a large stone, covered with a soft woolly skin, and serving for a sand-box when the kernel is taken out. The tree is very tall and bulky.

There are several species, which are distinguished by the words yellow, white, black, and dog zapotes.

Zaque.—The name which the Indians of the province of Tunja gave their king or lord in the time of their Paganism.

Zarzaparilla. (*Smylax Sarsaparilla.*)—A plant of the class *diœcia hexandria.* The calyx of the male as well as female consists of six leaves, and both are destitute of a corolla. The stylus of the female is divided into three parts, and the kernel has three cells, containing two seeds: they number 13 or more species. It is a plant or shoot resembling the bramble, whose leaves are alternate and long. The root shoots forth a great number of long, pliant, smooth sprouts, of a dark colour on the outside and ash within, of a porous nature and sweet taste. It is very common in every part of America, and grows on the banks of rivers, in wet ground and in places where the rays of the sun have little force. Its celebrated virtue in curing the venereal disease, rheumatism, histeric affections, hip-gout, and scrofula or king's evil, taken in infusion, and sometimes in powders, makes all justly esteem it one of the most valuable articles which America produces. There is a species of this plant growing in Spain, but its virtue is not so great.

Zenzontli.—A singing bird in New Spain, resembling the nightingale. It is of the size of the thrush, and of an ash-colour: its note is very sweet and harmonious, with a number of variations, and they have for this reason given it the name of zenzontli, which, in the Mexican language, signifies 80 voices.

Zipa.—A name given to their kings by the Moscas Indians of the new kingdom of Granada.

[*Zopilste.*—A bird so called in Nueva España.]

Zugmut.—A fish caught on the coast of New England in the United States of America, which is very singular for the monstrous size of its head in respect of the body.

Zuhe.—The natives of the new kingdom of Granada call the sun by this name.

Zumbador.—A bird inhabiting the most bleak cold parts of the cordillera of Peru, seldom seen during the day, but is continually heard in the night, making a sort of humming noise, which almost stupifies a person.

Zurron.—A bag made of an ox skin, a yard in length, and half a yard broad, sewed with thongs of the same materials, in which they bring to Europe, cocoa, Peruvian bark, tobacco, corn, and other commodities.

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